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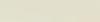
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BYRNE'S EUCLID

THE FIRST SIX BOOKS OF THE ELEMENTS OF EUCLID

WITH COLOURED DIAGRAMS
AND SYMBOLS







THE FIRST SIX BOOKS OF

THE ELEMENTS OF EUCLID

IN WHICH COLOURED DIAGRAMS AND SYMBOLS

ARE USED INSTEAD OF LETTERS FOR THE

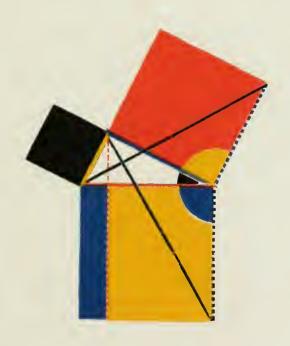
GREATER EASE OF LEARNERS



BY OLIVER BYRNE

SURVEYOR OF HER MAJESTY'S SETTLEMENTS IN THE FALKLAND ISLANDS

AND AUTHOR OF NUMEROUS MATHEMATICAL WORKS



LONDON WILLIAM PICKERING 1847



TO THE

RIGHT HONOURABLE THE EARL FITZWILLIAM,

ETC. ETC. ETC.

THIS WORK IS DEDICATED

BY HIS LORDSHIP'S OBEDIENT

AND MUCH OBLIGED SERVANT,

OLIVER BYRNE.

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INTRODUCTION.

HE arts and sciences have become so extensive, that to facilitate their acquirement is of as much importance as to extend their boundaries. Illustration, if it does not shorten the time of

study, will at least make it more agreeable. This Work has a greater aim than mere illustration; we do not introduce colours for the purpose of entertainment, or to amuse by certain combinations of tint and form, but to affift the mind in its refearches after truth, to increase the facilities of instruction, and to diffuse permanent knowledge. If we wanted authorities to prove the importance and usefulness of geometry, we might quote every philosopher fince the days of Plato. Among the Greeks, in ancient, as in the school of Pestalozzi and others in recent times, geometry was adopted as the best gymnastic of the mind. Euclid's Elements have become, by common confent, the basis of mathematical science all over the civilized globe. But this will not appear extraordinary, if we consider that this fublime science is not only better calculated than any other to call forth the spirit of inquiry, to elevate the mind, and to strengthen the reasoning faculties, but also it forms the best introduction to most of the useful and important vocations of human life. Arithmetic, land-furveying, menfuration, engineering, navigation, mechanics, hydrostatics, pneumatics, optics, physical astronomy, &c. are all dependent on the propositions of geometry.

Much however depends on the first communication of any science to a learner, though the best and most easy methods are feldom adopted. Propositions are placed before a student, who though having a sufficient understanding, is told just as much about them on entering at the very threshold of the science, as gives him a prepossession most unfavourable to his future study of this delightful fubject; or "the formalities and paraphernalia of rigour are fo oftentatiously put forward, as almost to hide the reality. Endless and perplexing repetitions, which do not confer greater exactitude on the reasoning, render the demonstrations involved and obscure, and conceal from the view of the student the consecution of evidence." Thus an averfion is created in the mind of the pupil, and a fubject fo calculated to improve the reasoning powers, and give the habit of close thinking, is degraded by a dry and rigid course of instruction into an uninteresting exercise of the memory. To raife the curiofity, and to awaken the liftless and dormant powers of younger minds should be the aim of every teacher; but where examples of excellence are wanting, the attempts to attain it are but few, while eminence excites attention and produces imitation. The object of this Work is to introduce a method of teaching geometry, which has been much approved of by many scientific men in this country, as well as in France and America. The plan here adopted forcibly appeals to the eye, the most fensitive and the most comprehensive of our external organs, and its pre-eminence to imprint it subject on the mind is fupported by the incontrovertible maxim expressed in the well known words of Horace:-

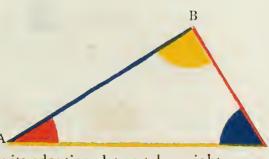
Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem Quàm quæ sunt oculis subjetta sidelibus. A feebler impress through the ear is made, Than what is by the faithful eye conveyed.

All language consists of representative signs, and those signs are the best which effect their purposes with the greatest precision and dispatch. Such for all common purposes are the audible signs called words, which are still considered as audible, whether addressed immediately to the ear, or through the medium of letters to the eye. Geometrical diagrams are not signs, but the materials of geometrical science, the object of which is to show the relative quantities of their parts by a process of reasoning called Demonstration. This reasoning has been generally carried on by words, letters, and black or uncoloured diagrams; but as the use of coloured symbols, signs, and diagrams in the linear arts and sciences, renders the process of reasoning more precise, and the attainment more expeditious, they have been in this instance accordingly adopted.

Such is the expedition of this enticing mode of communicating knowledge, that the Elements of Euclid can be acquired in less than one third the time usually employed, and the retention by the memory is much more permanent; these facts have been ascertained by numerous experiments made by the inventor, and several others who have adopted his plans. The particulars of which are few and obvious; the letters annexed to points, lines, or other parts of a diagram are in fact but arbitrary names, and represent them in the demonstration; instead of these, the parts being differ-

ently coloured, are made to name themselves, for their forms in corresponding colours represent them in the demonstration.

In order to give a better idea of this fystem, and A-



of the advantages gained by its adoption, let us take a right

angled triangle, and express some of its properties both by colours and the method generally employed.

Some of the properties of the right angled triangle ABC, expressed by the method generally employed.

- 1. The angle BAC, together with the angles BCA and ABC are equal to two right angles, or twice the angle ABC.
- 2. The angle CAB added to the angle ACB will be equal to the angle ABC.
- 3. The angle ABC is greater than either of the angles BAC or BCA.
- 4. The angle BCA or the angle CAB is lefs than the angle ABC.
- 5. If from the angle ABC, there be taken the angle BAC, the remainder will be equal to the angle ACB.
- 6. The fquare of AC is equal to the fum of the fquares of AB and BC.

The same properties expressed by colouring the different parts.



That is, the red angle added to the yellow angle added to the blue angle, equal twice the yellow angle, equal two right angles.

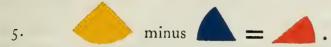
Or in words, the red angle added to the blue angle, equal the yellow angle.



The yellow angle is greater than either the red or blue angle.



Either the red or blue angle is less than the yellow angle.



In other terms, the yellow angle made less by the blue angle equal the red angle.



That is, the square of the yellow line is equal to the sum of the squares of the blue and red lines.

In oral demonstrations we gain with colours this important advantage, the eye and the ear can be addressed at the same moment, so that for teaching geometry, and other linear arts and sciences, in classes, the system is the best ever proposed, this is apparent from the examples just given.

Whence it is evident that a reference from the text to the diagram is more rapid and fure, by giving the forms and colours of the parts, or by naming the parts and their colours, than naming the parts and letters on the diagram. Besides the superior simplicity, this system is likewise conspicuous for concentration, and wholly excludes the injurious though prevalent practice of allowing the student to commit the demonstration to memory; until reason, and sact, and proof only make impressions on the understanding.

Again, when lecturing on the principles or properties of figures, if we mention the colour of the part or parts referred to, as in faying, the red angle, the blue line, or lines, &c. the part or parts thus named will be immediately feen by all in the class at the same instant; not so if we say the angle ABC, the triangle PFQ, the figure EGKt, and so on;

for the letters must be traced one by one before the students arrange in their minds the particular magnitude referred to, which often occasions confusion and error, as well as loss of time. Also if the parts which are given as equal, have the same colours in any diagram, the mind will not wander from the object before it; that is, such an arrangement prefents an ocular demonstration of the parts to be proved equal, and the learner retains the data throughout the whole of the reasoning. But whatever may be the advantages of the present plan, if it be not substituted for, it can always be made a powerful auxiliary to the other methods, for the purpose of introduction, or of a more speedy reminiscence, or of more permanent retention by the memory.

The experience of all who have formed fystems to impress facts on the understanding, agree in proving that coloured representations, as pictures, cuts, diagrams, &c. are more easily fixed in the mind than mere sentences unmarked by any peculiarity. Curious as it may appear, poets seem to be aware of this fact more than mathematicians; many modern poets allude to this visible system of communicating knowledge, one of them has thus expressed himself:

Sounds which address the ear are lost and die In one short hour, but these which strike the eye, Live long upon the mind, the faithful sight Engraves the knowledge with a beam of light.

This perhaps may be reckoned the only improvement which plain geometry has received fince the days of Euclid, and if there were any geometers of note before that time, Euclid's fuccess has quite eclipsed their memory, and even occasioned all good things of that kind to be assigned to him; like Æsop among the writers of Fables. It may also be worthy of remark, as tangible diagrams afford the only medium through which geometry and other linear

arts and sciences can be taught to the blind, this visible system is no less adapted to the exigencies of the deaf and dumb.

Care must be taken to show that colour has nothing to do with the lines, angles, or magnitudes, except merely to name them. A mathematical line, which is length without breadth, cannot possess colour, yet the junction of two colours on the same plane gives a good idea of what is meant by a mathematical line; recollect we are speaking familiarly, such a junction is to be understood and not the colour, when we say the black line, the red line or lines, &c.

Colours and coloured diagrams may at first appear a clumfy method to convey proper notions of the properties and parts of mathematical figures and magnitudes, however they will be found to afford a means more refined and extensive than any that has been hitherto proposed.

We shall here define a point, a line, and a surface, and demonstrate a proposition in order to show the truth of this affertion.

A point is that which has position, but not magnitude; or a point is position only, abstracted from the consideration of length, breadth, and thickness. Perhaps the following description is better calculated to explain the nature of a mathematical point to those who have not acquired the idea, than the above specious definition.

Let three colours meet and cover a portion of the paper, where they meet is not blue, nor is it yellow, nor is it red, as it occupies no portion of the plane, for if it did, it would belong to the blue, the red, or the yellow part; yet it exists, and has position



without magnitude, fo that with a little reflection, this junc-

tion of three colours on a plane, gives a good idea of a mathematical point.

A line is length without breadth. With the affistance of colours, nearly in the same manner as before, an idea of a line may be thus given:—

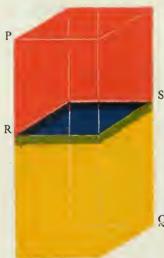
Let two colours meet and cover a portion of the paper;



where they meet is not red, nor is it blue; therefore the junction occupies no portion of the plane, and therefore it cannot have breadth, but only length: from which we can

readily form an idea of what is meant by a mathematical line. For the purpose of illustration, one colour differing from the colour of the paper, or plane upon which it is drawn, would have been sufficient; hence in suture, if we say the red line, the blue line, or lines, &c. it is the junctions with the plane upon which they are drawn are to be understood.

Surface is that which has length and breadth without thickness.

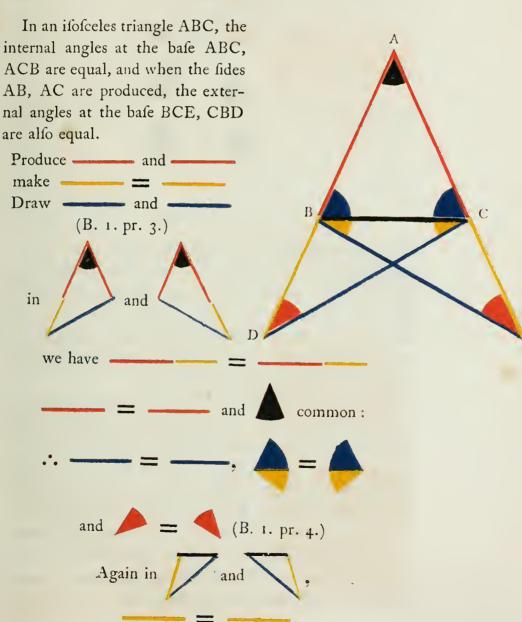


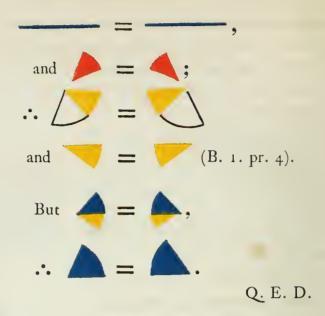
When we consider a solid body (PQ), we perceive at once that it has three dimensions, namely:—
length, breadth, and thickness;
s suppose one part of this solid (PS) to be red, and the other part (QR) yellow, and that the colours be distinct without commingling, the blue surface (RS) which separates these parts, or which is the same thing, that which divides the solid without loss of material, must be

without thickness, and only possesses length and breadth;

this plainly appears from reasoning, similar to that just employed in defining, or rather describing a point and a line.

The proposition which we have selected to elucidate the manner in which the principles are applied, is the fifth of the first Book.





By annexing Letters to the Diagram.

LET the equal sides AB and AC be produced through the extremities BC, of the third side, and in the produced part BD of either, let any point D be assumed, and from the other let AE be cut off equal to AD (B. 1. pr. 3). Let the points E and D, so taken in the produced sides, be connected by straight lines DC and BE with the alternate extremities of the third side of the triangle.

In the triangles DAC and EAB the fides DA and AC are respectively equal to EA and AB, and the included angle A is common to both triangles. Hence (B. 1. pr. 4.) the line DC is equal to BE, the angle ADC to the angle AEB, and the angle ACD to the angle ABE; if from the equal lines AD and AE the equal fides AB and AC be taken, the remainders BD and CE will be equal. Hence in the triangles BDC and CEB, the fides BD and DC are respectively equal to CE and EB, and the angles D and E included by those fides are also equal. Hence (B. 1. pr. 4.)

the angles DBC and ECB, which are those included by the third side BC and the productions of the equal sides AB and AC are equal. Also the angles DCB and EBC are equal if those equals be taken from the angles DCA and EBA before proved equal, the remainders, which are the angles ABC and ACB opposite to the equal sides, will be equal.

Therefore in an isosceles triangle, &c.

Q. E. D.

Our object in this place being to introduce the fystem rather than to teach any particular set of propositions, we have therefore selected the foregoing out of the regular course. For schools and other public places of instruction, dyed chalks will answer to describe diagrams, &c. for private use coloured pencils will be found very convenient.

We are happy to find that the Elements of Mathematics now forms a confiderable part of every found female education, therefore we call the attention of those interested or engaged in the education of ladies to this very attractive mode of communicating knowledge, and to the succeeding work for its future developement.

We shall for the present conclude by observing, as the senses of sight and hearing can be so forcibly and instantaneously addressed alike with one thousand as with one, the million might be taught geometry and other branches of mathematics with great ease, this would advance the purpose of education more than any thing that might be named, for it would teach the people how to think, and not what to think; it is in this particular the great error of education originates.

THE ELEMENTS OF EUCLID.

BOOK I.

DEFINITIONS.

T.

A point is that which has no parts.

П.

A line is length without breadth.

III.

The extremities of a line are points.

IV.

A straight or right line is that which lies evenly between its extremities.

V.

A furface is that which has length and breadth only.

VI.

The extremities of a furface are lines.

VII.

A plane furface is that which lies evenly between its extremities.

VIII.

A plane angle is the inclination of two lines to one another, in a plane, which meet together, but are not in the fame direction.

IX.



A plane rectilinear angle is the inclination of two straight lines to one another, which meet together, but are not in the same straight line.

X.

When one straight line standing on another straight line makes the adjacent angles equal, each of these angles is called a *right* angle, and each of these lines is said to be perpendicular to the other.



XI.

An obtuse angle is an angle greater than a right angle.



XII.

An acute angle is an angle less than a right angle.



XIII.

A term or boundary is the extremity of any thing.

XIV.

A figure is a furface enclosed on all fides by a line or lines.

XV.

A circle is a plane figure, bounded by one continued line, called its circumference or periphery; and having a certain point within it, from which all straight lines drawn to its circumference are equal.



XVI.

This point (from which the equal lines are drawn) is called the centre of the circle.



XVII.

A diameter of a circle is a straight line drawn through the centre, terminated both ways in the circumference.



XVIII.

A femicircle is the figure contained by the diameter, and the part of the circle cut off by the diameter.



XIX.

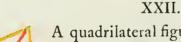
A fegment of a circle is a figure contained by a straight line, and the part of the circumference which it cuts off.

XX.

A figure contained by straight lines only, is called a rectilinear figure.

XXI.

A triangle is a rectilinear figure included by three fides.





XXIII.

A polygon is a rectilinear figure bounded by more than four fides.

XXIV.

A triangle whose three sides are equal, is said to be equilateral.



XXV.

A triangle which has only two fides equal is called an ifosceles triangle.



XXVI.

A scalene triangle is one which has no two sides equal.

XXVII.

A right angled triangle is that which has a right angle.



XXVIII.

An obtuse angled triangle is that which has an obtuse angle.



XXIX.

An acute angled triangle is that which has three acute angles.



XXX.

Of four-fided figures, a square is that which has all its sides equal, and all its angles right angles.



XXXI.

A rhombus is that which has all its fides equal, but its angles are not right angles.

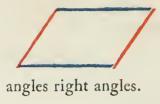


XXXII.

An oblong is that which has all its angles right angles, but has not all its fides equal.

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ľ	
ı	
ŧ	The same of the sa

XXXIII.



A rhomboid is that which has its opposite sides equal to one another, but all its sides are not equal, nor its

XXXIV.

All other quadrilateral figures are called trapeziums.

XXXV.

Parallel straight lines are such as are in the same plane, and which being produced continually in both directions, would never meet.

POSTULATES.

I.

Let it be granted that a straight line may be drawn from any one point to any other point.

II.

Let it be granted that a finite straight line may be produced to any length in a straight line.

III.

Let it be granted that a circle may be described with any centre at any distance from that centre.

AXIOMS.

I.

Magnitudes which are equal to the fame are equal to each other.

II.

If equals be added to equals the fums will be equal.

III.

If equals be taken away from equals the remainders will be equal.

IV.

If equals be added to unequals the sums will be unequal.

V.

If equals be taken away from unequals the remainders will be unequal.

VI.

The doubles of the same or equal magnitudes are equal.

VII.

The halves of the same or equal magnitudes are equal.

VIII.

Magnitudes which coincide with one another, or exactly fill the same space, are equal.

IX.

The whole is greater than its part.

X.

Two straight lines cannot include a space.

XI.

All right angles are equal.

XII.

If two straight lines (_____) meet a third straight line (_____) so as to make the two interior angles (_____) on the same side less than two right angles, these two straight lines will meet if they be produced on that side on which the angles are less than two right angles.

The twelfth axiom may be expressed in any of the following ways:

- 1. Two diverging straight lines cannot be both parallel to the same straight line.
- 2. If a straight line intersect one of the two parallel straight lines it must also intersect the other.
- 3. Only one straight line can be drawn through a given point, parallel to a given straight line.

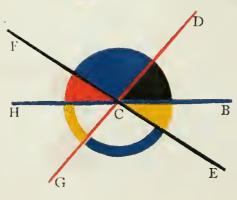
Geometry has for its principal objects the exposition and explanation of the properties of figure, and figure is defined to be the relation which subsists between the boundaries of space. Space or magnitude is of three kinds, linear, superficial, and folid.

Angles might properly be confidered as a fourth species of magnitude. Angular magnitude evidently consists of parts, and must therefore be admitted to be a species of quantity. The student must not suppose that the magni-

tude of an angle is affected by the length of the straight lines which include it, and of whose mutual divergence it is the meafure. The vertex of an angle is the point where the sides or the legs of the angle meet, as A.

An angle is often defignated by a fingle letter when its

legs are the only lines which meet together at its vertex. Thus the red and blue lines form the yellow angle, which in other fystems would be called the angle A. But when more than two lines meet in the same point, it was necessary by former methods, in order to avoid confusion, to employ three letters to designate an angle about that point,



the letter which marked the vertex of the angle being always placed in the middle. Thus the black and red lines meeting together at C, form the blue angle, and has been usually denominated the angle FCD or DCF. The lines FC and CD are the legs of the angle; the point C is its vertex. In like manner the black angle would be designated the angle DCB or BCD. The red and blue angles added together, or the angle HCF added to FCD, make the angle HCD; and so of other angles.

When the legs of an angle are produced or prolonged beyond its vertex, the angles made by them on both fides of the vertex are faid to be *vertically opposite* to each other: Thus the red and yellow angles are faid to be vertically opposite angles.

Superposition is the process by which one magnitude may be conceived to be placed upon another, so as exactly to cover it, or so that every part of each shall exactly coincide.

A line is faid to be *produced*, when it is extended, prolonged, or has its length increased, and the increase of length which it receives is called its *produced part*, or its *production*.

The entire length of the line or lines which enclose a figure, is called its perimeter. The first six books of Euclid treat of plain figures only. A line drawn from the centre of a circle to its circumference, is called a radius. The lines which include a figure are called its sides. That side of a right angled triangle, which is opposite to the right angle, is called the hypotenuse. An oblong is defined in the second book, and called a restangle. All the lines which are considered in the first six books of the Elements are supposed to be in the same plane.

The straight-edge and compasses are the only instruments,

the use of which is permitted in Euclid, or plain Geometry. To declare this restriction is the object of the postulates.

The Axioms of geometry are certain general propositions, the truth of which is taken to be self-evident and incapable of being established by demonstration.

Propositions are those results which are obtained in geometry by a process of reasoning. There are two species of propositions in geometry, problems and theorems.

A *Problem* is a proposition in which something is proposed to be done; as a line to be drawn under some given conditions, a circle to be described, some sigure to be constructed, &c.

The folution of the problem confifts in showing how the thing required may be done by the aid of the rule or straightedge and compasses.

The demonstration confifts in proving that the process indicated in the solution really attains the required end.

A Theorem is a proposition in which the truth of some principle is afferted. This principle must be deduced from the axioms and definitions, or other truths previously and independently established. To show this is the object of demonstration.

A Problem is analogous to a postulate.

A Theorem refembles an axiom.

A Postulate is a problem, the folution of which is assumed.

An Axiom is a theorem, the truth of which is granted without demonstration.

A Corollary is an inference deduced immediately from a proposition.

A Scholium is a note or observation on a proposition not containing an inference of sufficient importance to entitle it to the name of a corollary.

A Lemma is a proposition merely introduced for the purpose of establishing some more important proposition.

SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS.

- .. expresses the word therefore.
- · · · because.
- be read equal to, or is equal to, or are equal to; but any discrepancy in regard to the introduction of the auxiliary verbs is, are, &c. cannot affect the geometrical rigour.
- # means the same as if the words 'not equal' were written.
- fignifies greater than.
- ☐ . . . less than.
- not greater than.
- 🛨 . . . not less than.
- is read plus (more), the fign of addition; when interposed between two or more magnitudes, fignifies their sum.
- is read minus (less), fignifies subtraction; and when placed between two quantities denotes that the latter is to be taken from the former.
- * this fign expresses the product of two or more numbers when placed between them in arithmetic and algebra; but in geometry it is generally used to express a restangle, when placed between "two straight lines which contain one of its right angles." A restangle may also be represented by placing a point between two of its conterminous sides.
- expresses an analogy or proportion; thus, if A, B, C and D, represent four magnitudes, and A has to B the same ratio that C has to D, the proposition is thus briefly written,

A:B::C:D,
A:B=C:D,
or
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{C}{D}$$

This equality or fameness of ratio is read,

xxviii SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS.

as A is to B, fo is C to D; or A is to B, as C is to D.

I fignifies parallel to. 1. . . . perpendicular to. . angle. \ . . right angle. two right angles. or briefly defignates a point. _, =, or _ fignifies greater, equal, or less than. The fquare described on a line is concisely written thus, In the fame manner twice the square of, is expressed by def. fignifies definition. pos. . . . postulate. ax. . . . axiom. hyp. hypothesis. It may be necessary here to re-

mark, that the hypothesis is the condition assumed or taken for granted. Thus, the hypothesis of the proposition given in the Introduction, is that the triangle is isofceles, or that its legs are equal.

const. construction. The construction is the change made in the original figure, by drawing lines, making angles, describing circles, &c. in order to adapt it to the argument of the demonstration or the folution of the problem. The conditions under which these changes are made, are as indisputable as those contained in the hypothesis. For instance, if we make an angle equal to a given angle, these two angles are equal by construction.

Q. E. D. Quod erat demonstrandum. Which was to be demonstrated.

Faults to be corrected before reading this Volume.

- PAGE 13, line 9, for def. 7 read def. 10.
 - 45, last line, for pr. 19 read pr. 29.
 - 54, line 4 from the bottom, for black and red line read blue and red line.
 - 59, line 4, for add black line fquared read add blue line fquared.
 - 60, line 17, for red line multiplied by red and yellow line read red line multiplied by red, blue, and yellow line.
 - 76, line 11, for def. 7 read def. 10.
 - 81, line 10, for take black line read take blue line.
 - 105, line 11, for yellow black angle add blue angle equal red angle read yellow black angle add blue angle add red angle.
 - 129, last line, for circle read triangle.
 - 141, line 1, for Draw black line read Draw blue line.
 - 196, line 3, before the yellow magnitude infert M.

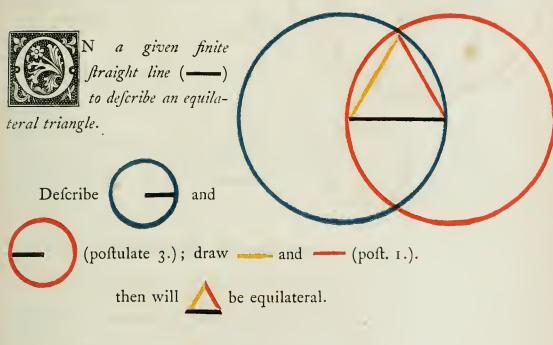




Euclid.

BOOK I.

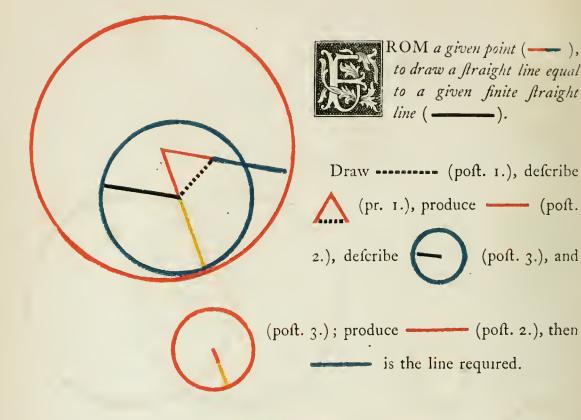
PROPOSITION I. PROBLEM.



·. — = — (axiom. 1.);

and therefore / is the equilateral triangle required.

Q. E. D.



For ___ = __ (def. 15.),

and ___ = __ (conft.), ... = ___ ;

(ax. 3.), but (def. 15.) ___ = __ ;

... __ drawn from the given point (____),

is equal the given line ____.

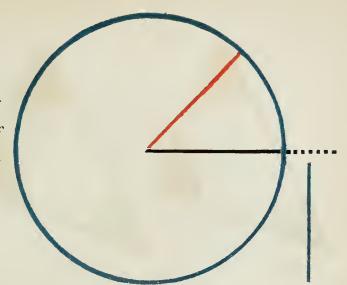
Q. E. D.



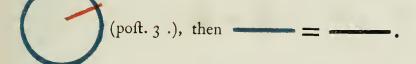
ROM the greater

two given straight

lines, to cut off a part equal to the less (______).



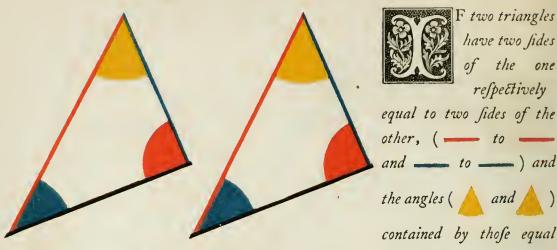
Draw = (pr. 2.); describe



For = (def. 15.),

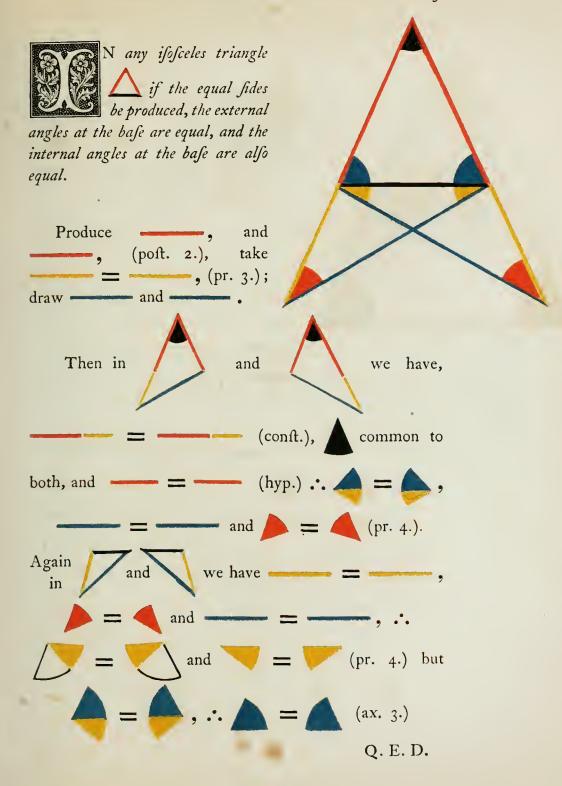
and = (conft.);

:. = (ax. 1.).

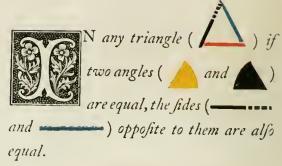


Let the two triangles be conceived, to be so placed, that the vertex of the one of the equal angles, or ; shall fall upon that of the other, and to coincide with the mill coincide with the if applied: consequently will coincide with simpossible (ax. 10), therefore the coincide with the mill enclose a space, which is impossible (ax. 10), therefore the coincide, when applied, they are equal in every respect.

Q. E. D.





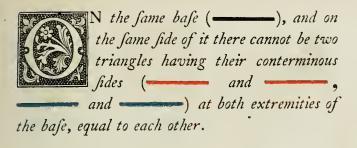


Then in and , ______,

(conft.) = (hyp.) and _____ common,

... the triangles are equal (pr. 4.) a part equal to the whole,
which is abfurd; ... neither of the fides ______ or

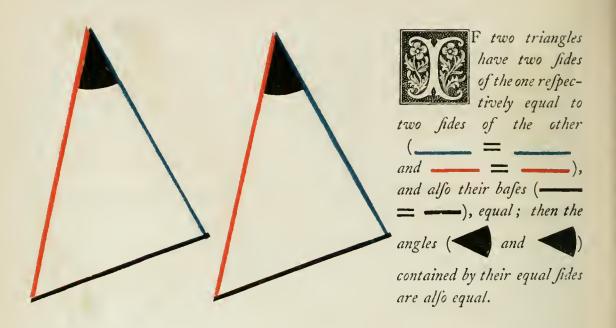
_____ is greater than the other, ... hence they are
equal



When two triangles stand on the same base, and on the same side of it, the vertex of the one shall either fall outside of the other triangle, or within it; or, lastly, on one of its sides.

If it be possible let the two triangles be constructed so that \(= \) \(= \), then \(\text{draw} \) \(\text{pr. 5.} \) \(\text{and} \) \(\text{but (pr. 5.)} \) \(\text{but (pr. 5.)} \)

therefore the two triangles cannot have their conterminous sides equal at both extremities of the base.



If the equal bases — and — be conceived to be placed one upon the other, so that the triangles shall lie at the same side of them, and that the equal sides ____ and ___ be conterminous, the vertex of the one must fall on the vertex of the other; for to suppose them not coincident would contradict the last proposition.



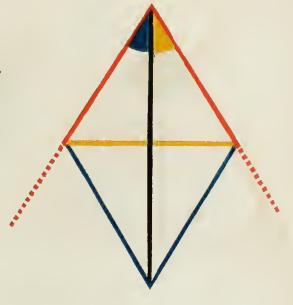
O bisect a given rectilinear angle (

Take ____ = ___ (pr. 3.)

draw ____, upon which

describe V (pr. 1.),

draw ____.



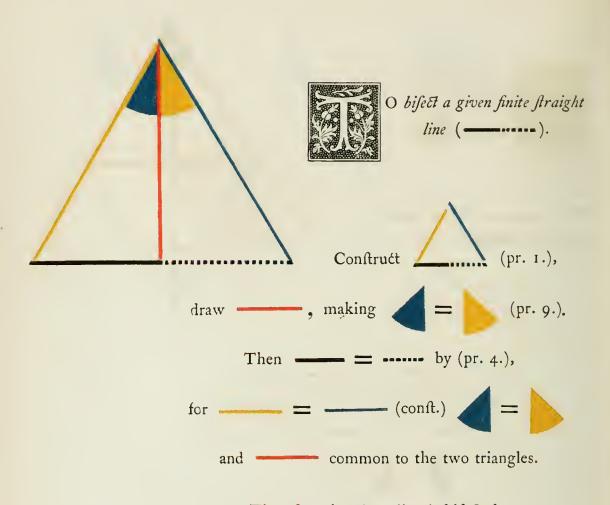
Because = (const.)

and common to the two triangles

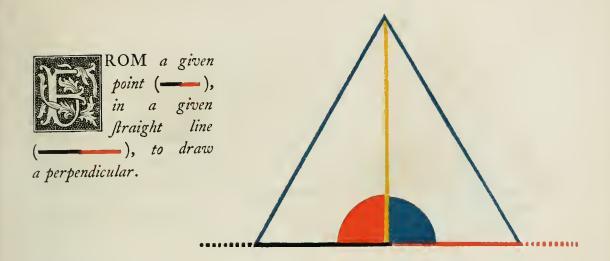
and (const.),

... (pr. 8.)

Q. E. D.



Therefore the given line is bisected.

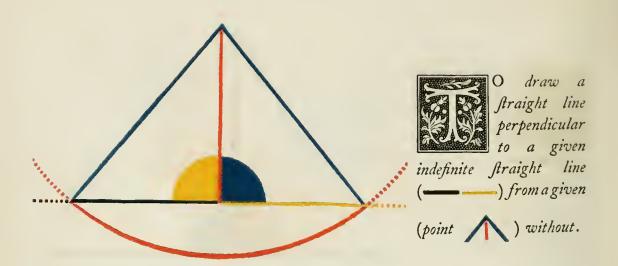


Take any point (______) in the given line, cut off _____ = ___ (pr. 3.),



draw and it shall be perpendicular to the given line.

and ____ common to the two triangles.



With the given point as centre, at one fide of the line, and any distance capable of extending to the other fide, describe

Make (pr. 10.)

draw and then L (const.)

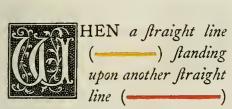
For (pr. 8.) fince (const.)

common to both,

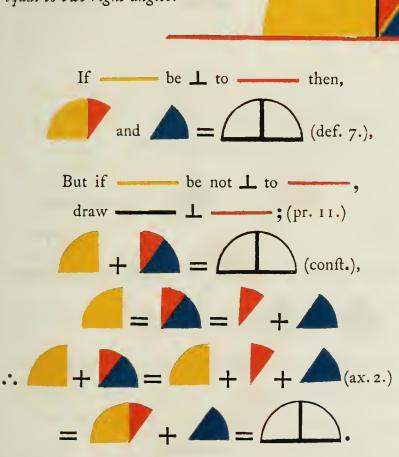
and (def. 15.)

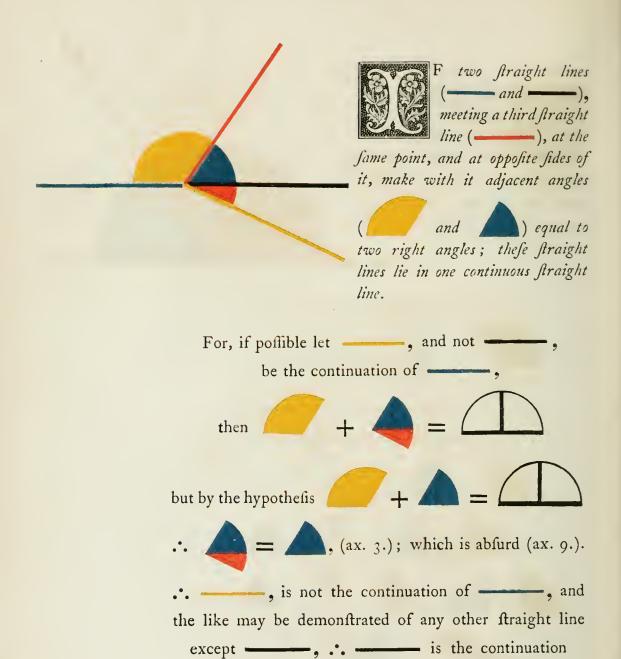
2. E. D.

Q. E. D.

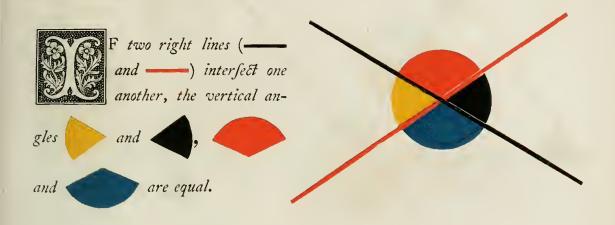


makes angles with it; they are either two right angles or together equal to two right angles.





of _____



$$+ =$$

$$+ =$$

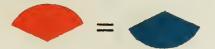
$$+ =$$

$$+ =$$

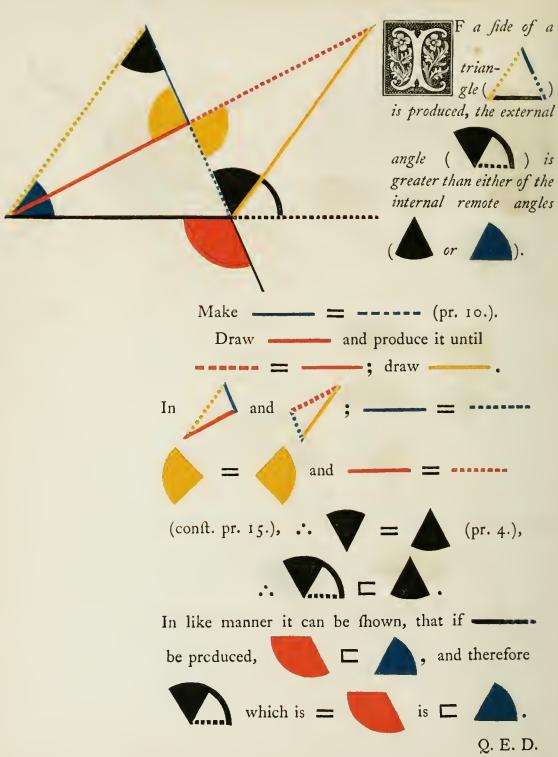
$$+ =$$

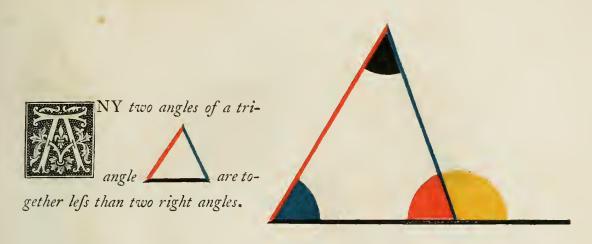
$$+ =$$

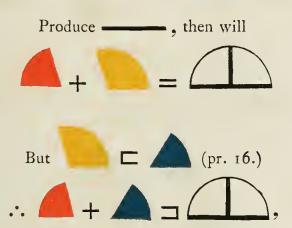
In the fame manner it may be shown that



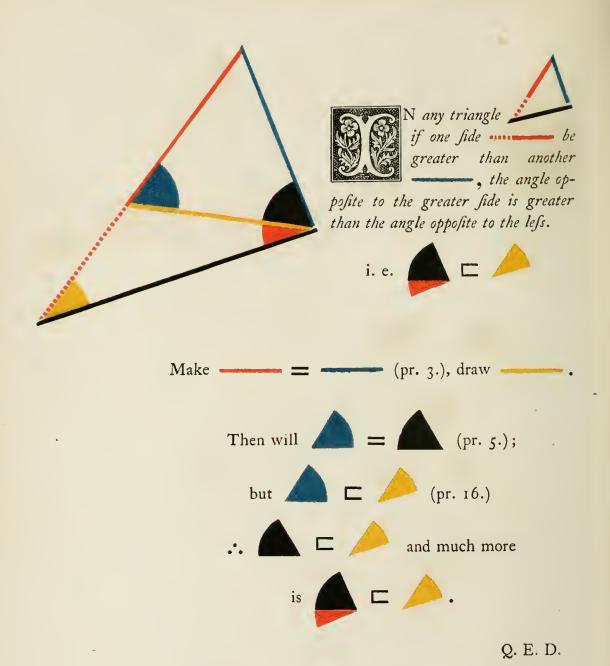


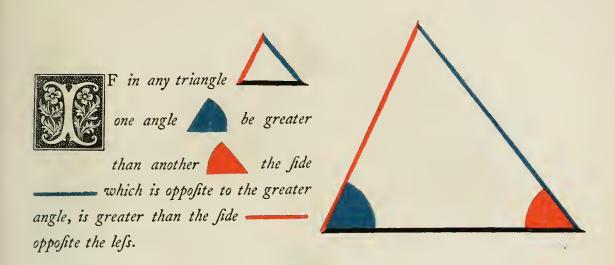


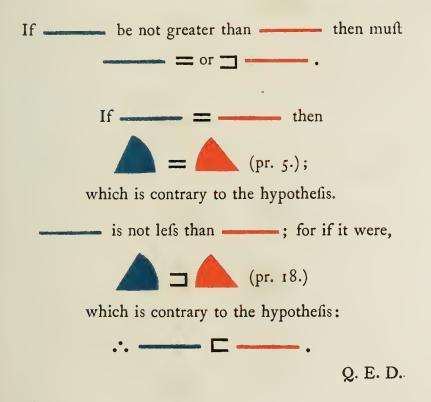


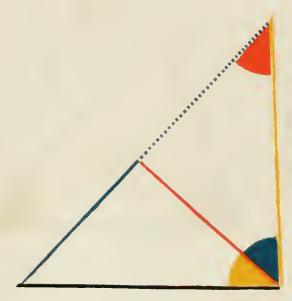


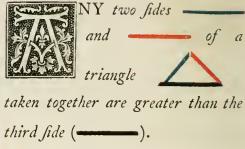
and in the same manner it may be shown that any other two angles of the triangle taken together are less than two right angles.



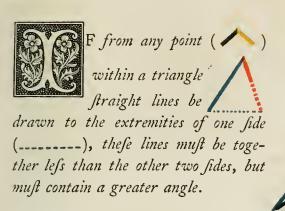


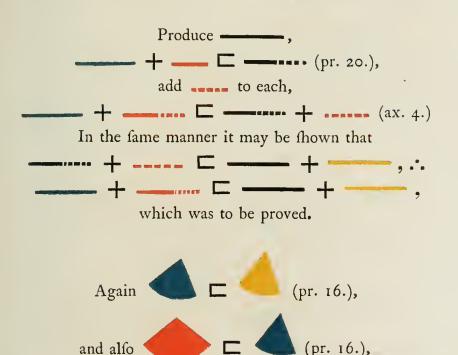


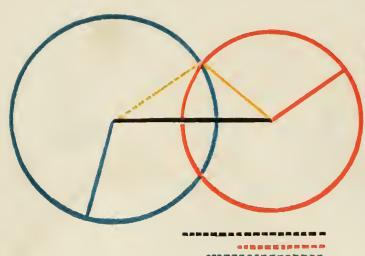




Produce _____, and









IVEN three right
lines {
the fum of any
two greater than

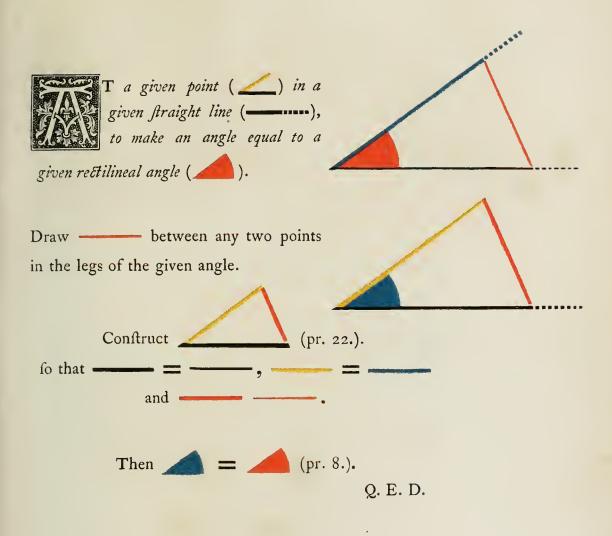
the third, to construct a triangle whose sides shall be respectively equal to the given lines.

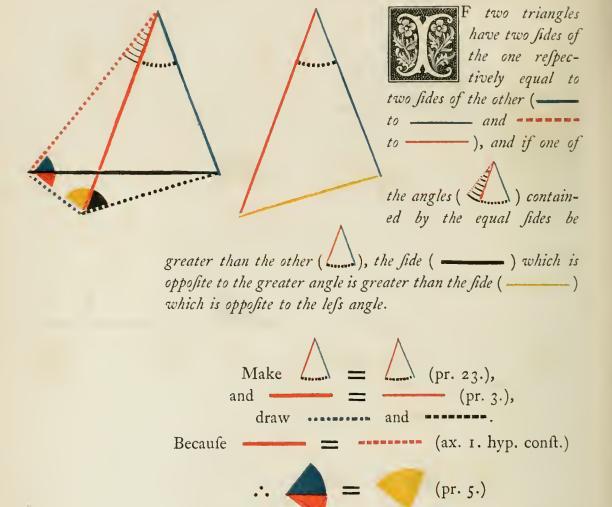
With and as radii,



draw and _____

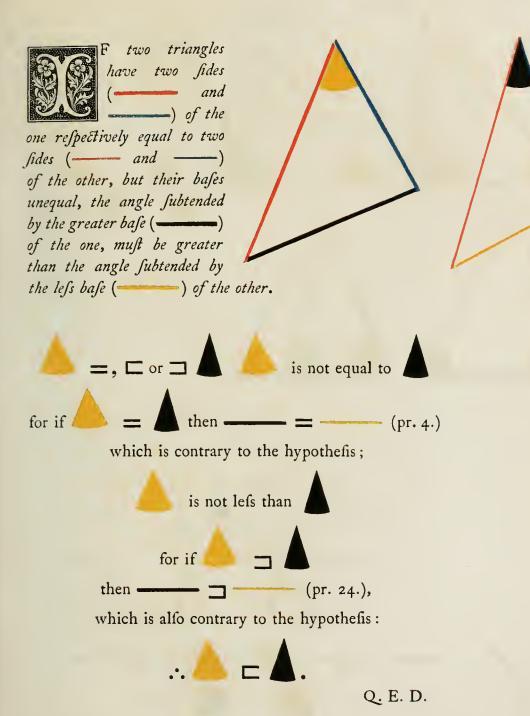
then will be the triangle required.

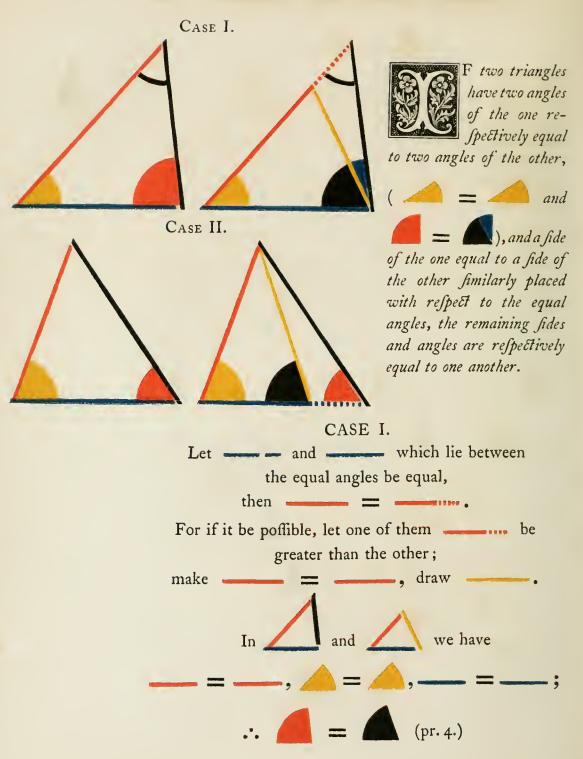




but

and ... (pr. 19.)
but ____ (pr. 4.)
.. ___ Q. E. D.



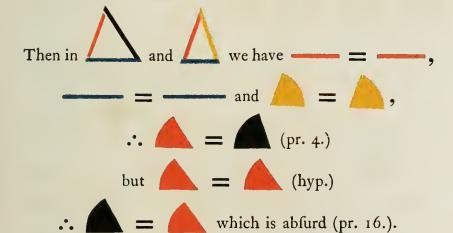


and therefore ______, which is abfurd; hence neither of the fides _____ and ____ is greater than the other; and ... they are equal;

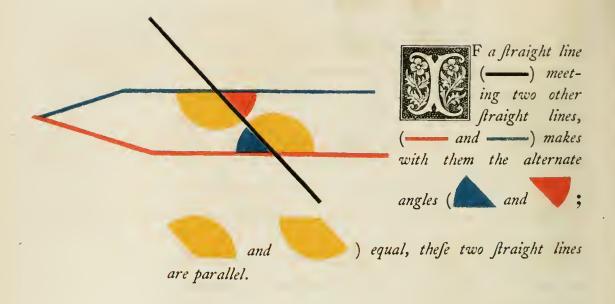
$$\therefore --- = ---, \text{ and } \Delta = \Delta, \text{ (pr. 4.)}.$$

CASE II.

Again, let ______, which lie opposite the equal angles and . If it be possible, let ______, then take ______,

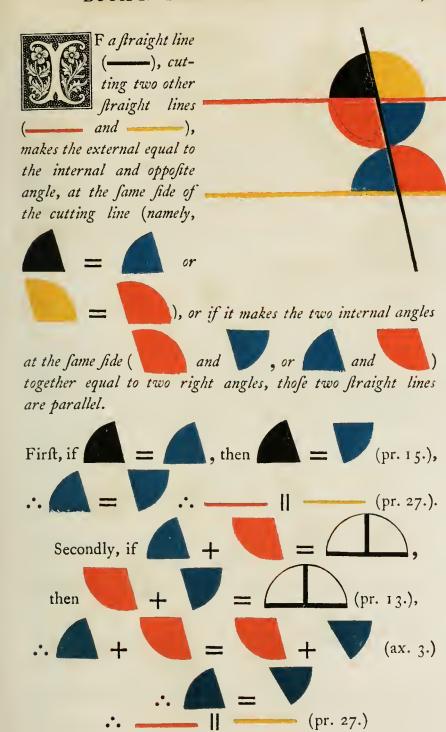


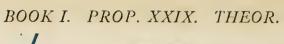
Consequently, neither of the sides or is greater than the other, hence they must be equal. It follows (by pr. 4.) that the triangles are equal in all respects.

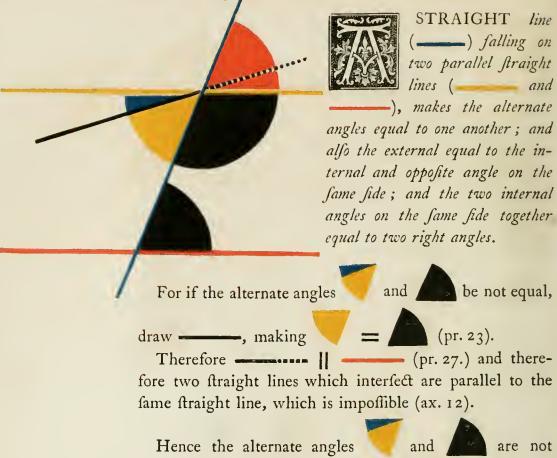


If _____ be not parallel to _____ they shall meet when produced.

when produced; then the external angle is greater than (pr. 16), but they are also equal (hyp.), which is absurd: in the same manner it may be shown that they cannot meet on the other side; ... they are parallel.





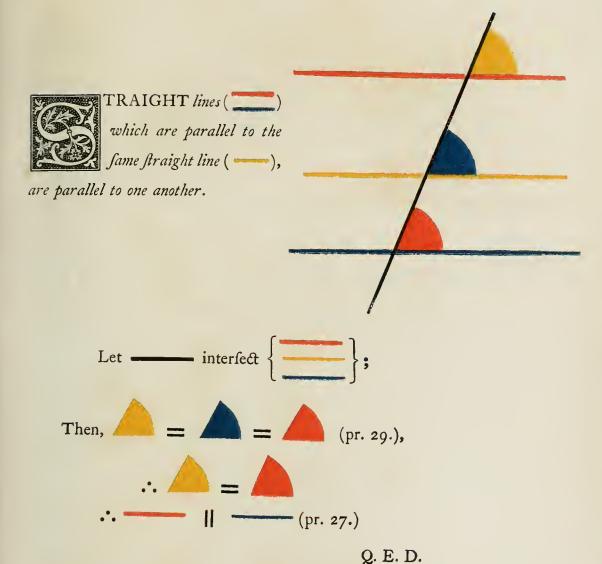


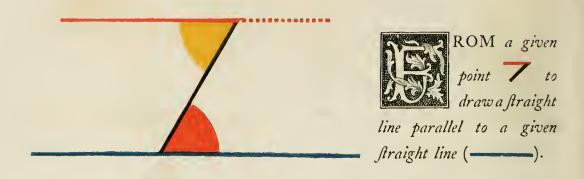
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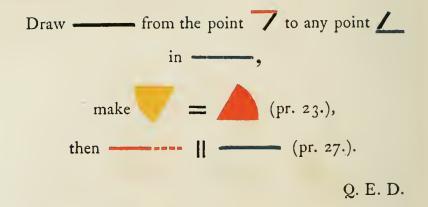
Hence the alternate angles and are not unequal, that is, they are equal: = (pr. 15);

... = , the external angle equal to the internal and opposite on the same side: if be added to both, then + = (pr. 13).

That is to fay, the two internal angles at the same side of the cutting line are equal to two right angles.



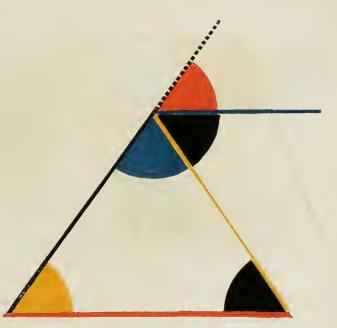


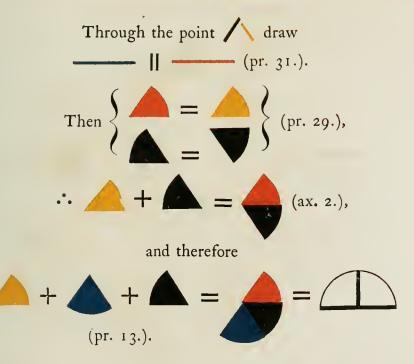




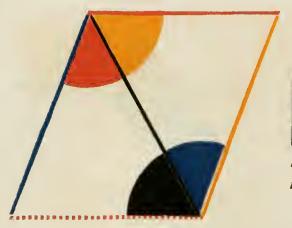
to the sum of the two internal and

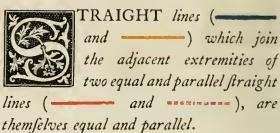
opposite angles (and), and the three internal angles of every triangle taken together are equal to two right angles.











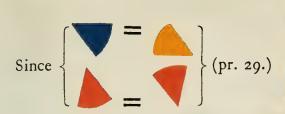
Draw — the diagonal. **=** (hyp.)

and _____ common to the two triangles;



HE opposite sides and angles of any parallelogram are equal, and the diagonal (———)

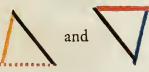
divides it into two equal parts.



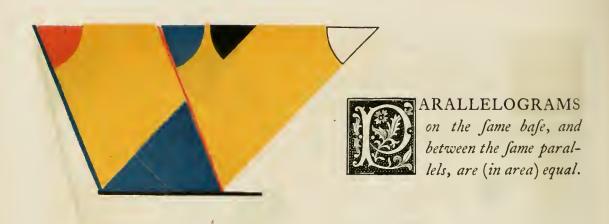
and _____ common to the two triangles.

Therefore the opposite sides and angles of the parallelo-

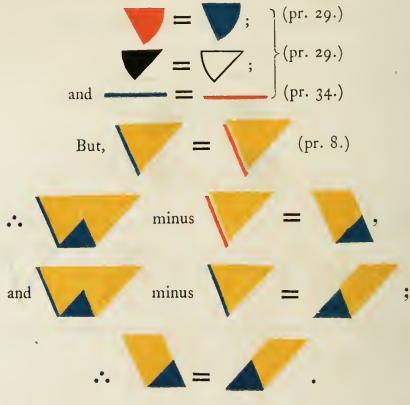
gram are equal: and as the triangles and

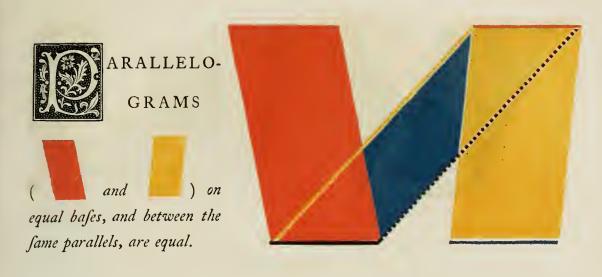


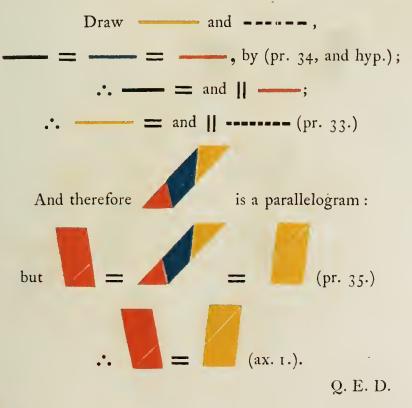
are equal in every respect (pr. 4,), the diagonal divides the parallelogram into two equal parts.

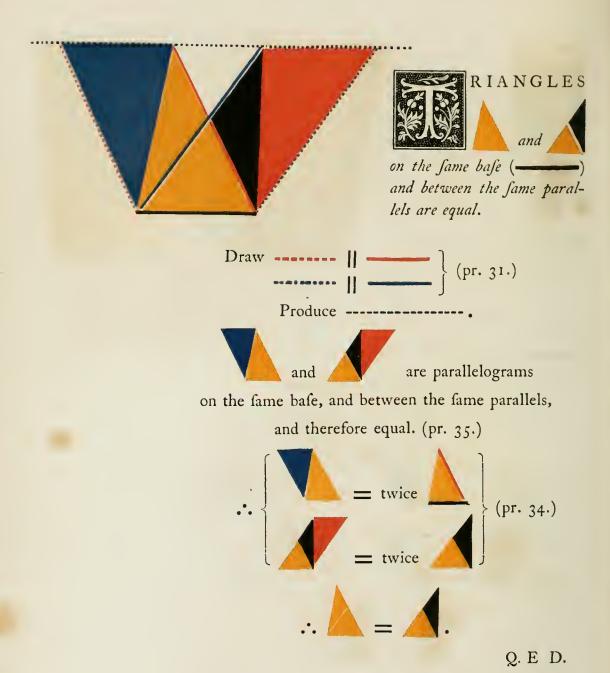


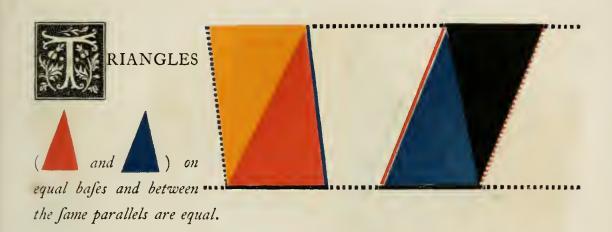
On account of the parallels,

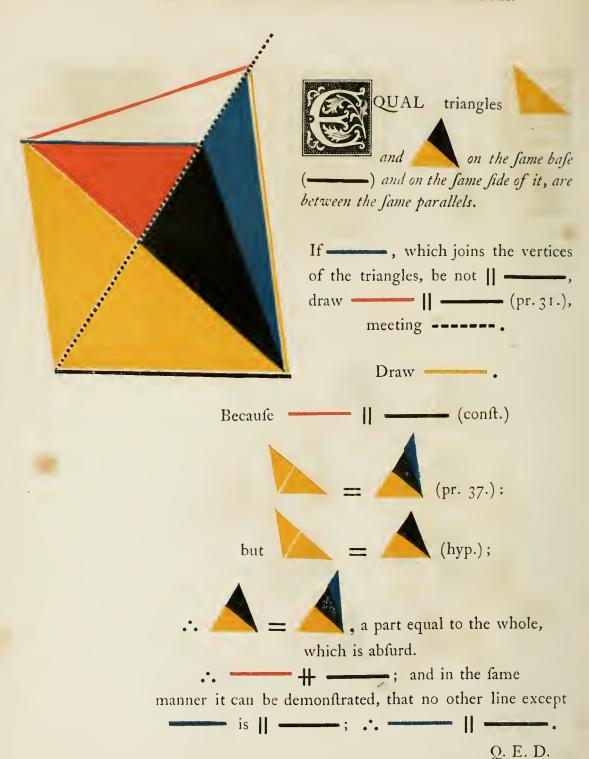


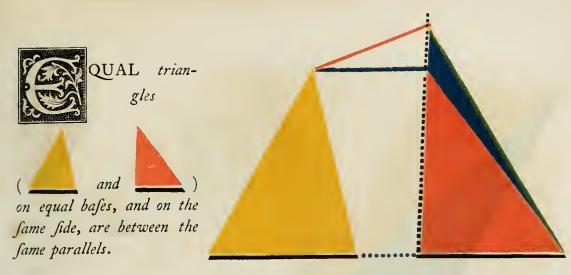


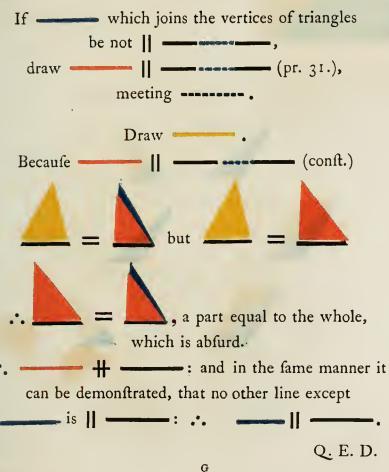


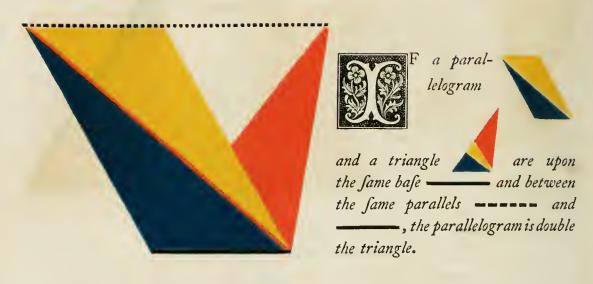


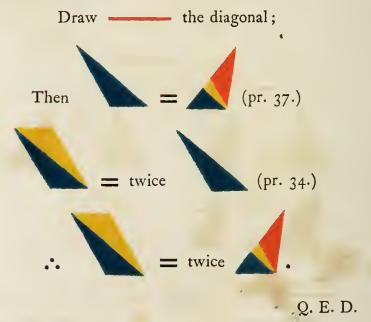


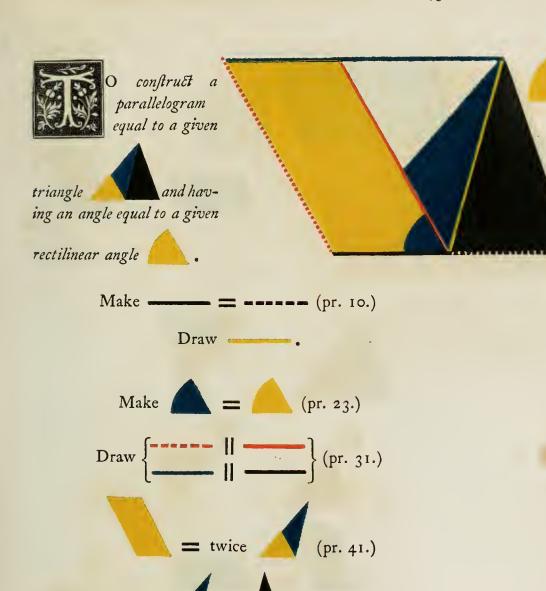




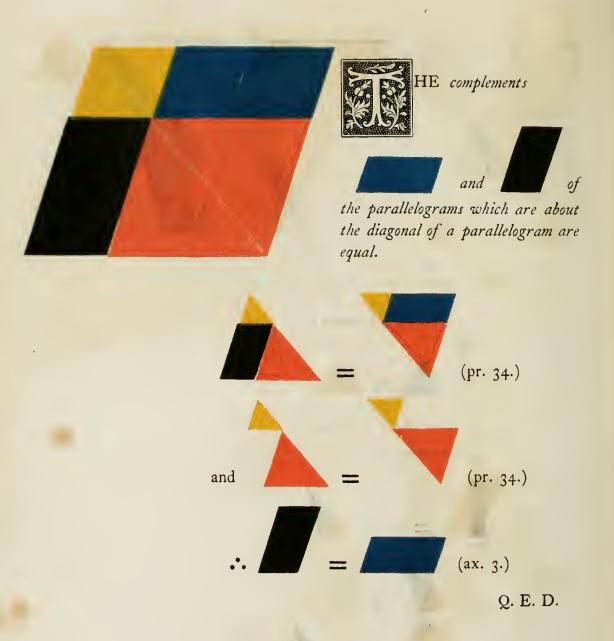


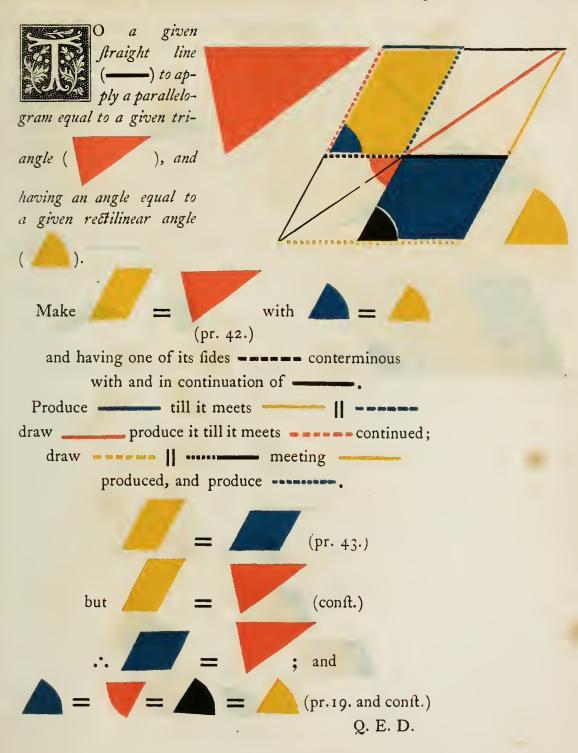


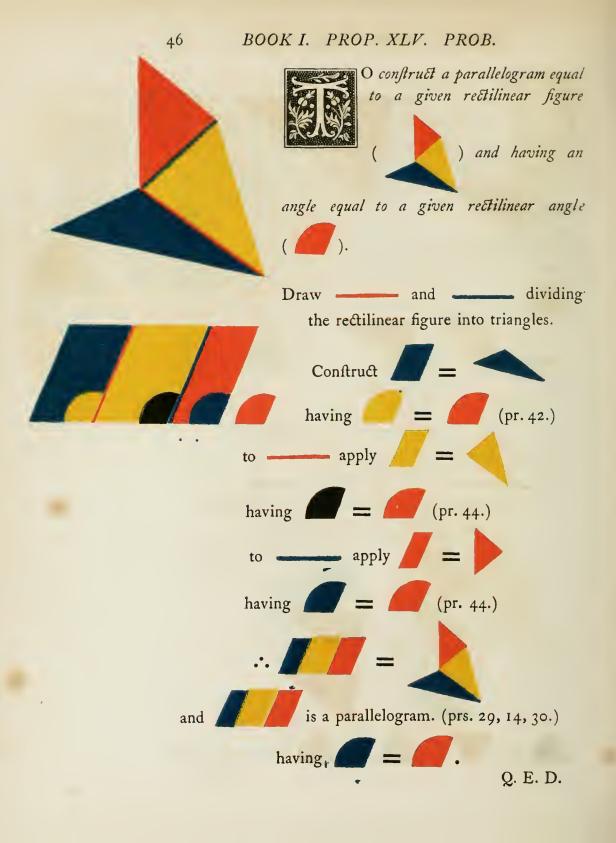


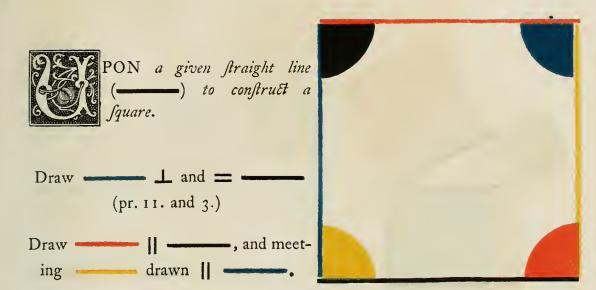


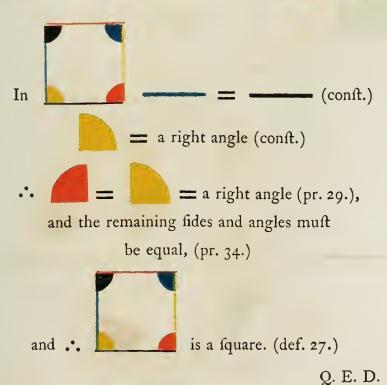
Q. E. D.

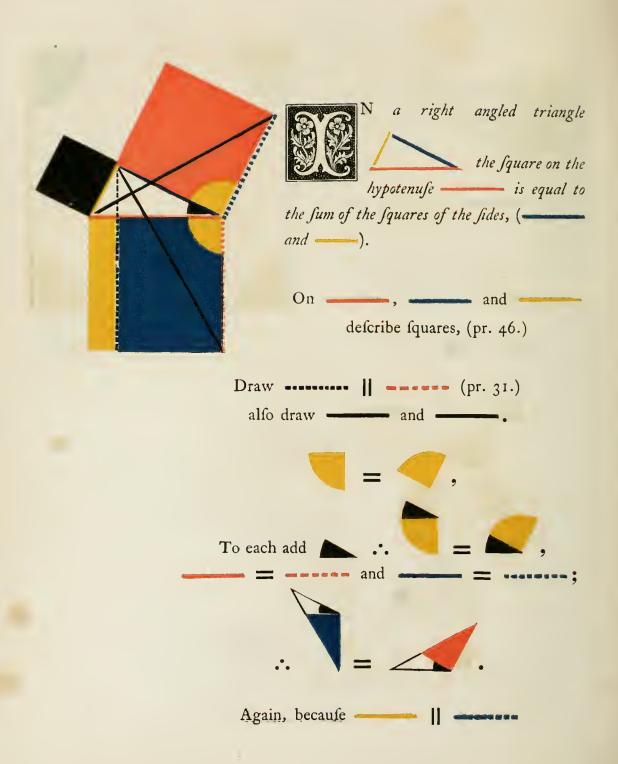


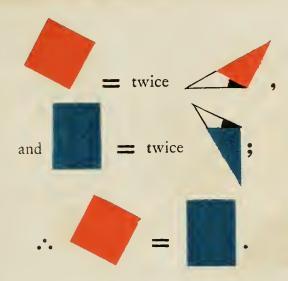




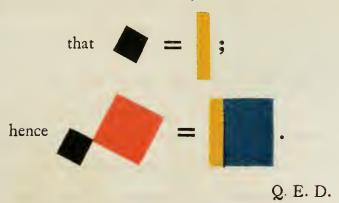


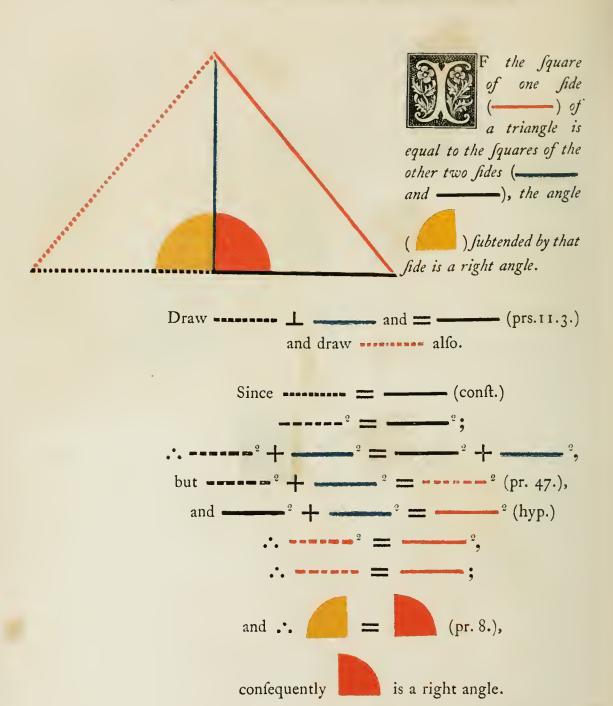






In the same manner it may be shown







BOOK II.

DEFINITION I.



RECTANGLE or a right angled parallelogram is faid to be con-

tained by any two of its adjacent or conterminous fides.



Thus: the right angled parallelogram is faid to be contained by the fides _____ and ____; or it may be briefly defignated by

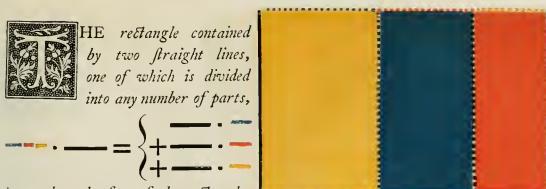
DEFINITION II.





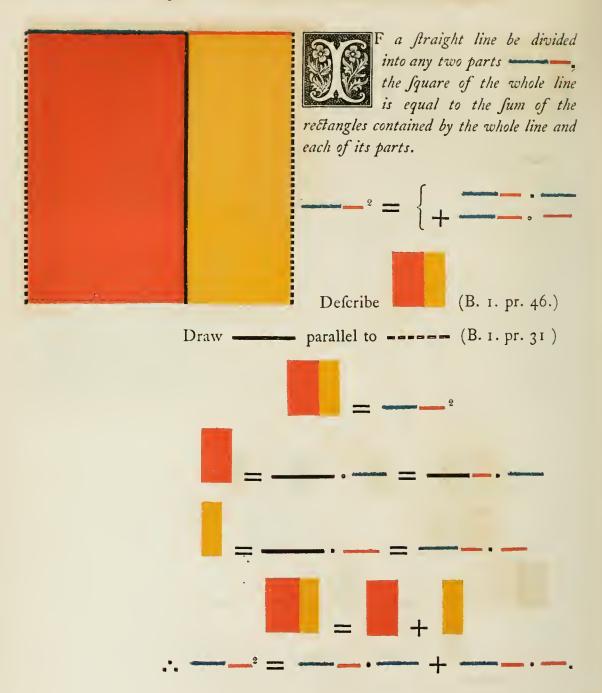
a parallelogram, the figure composed of one of the parallelograms about the diagonal, together with the two complements, is called a Gnomon.

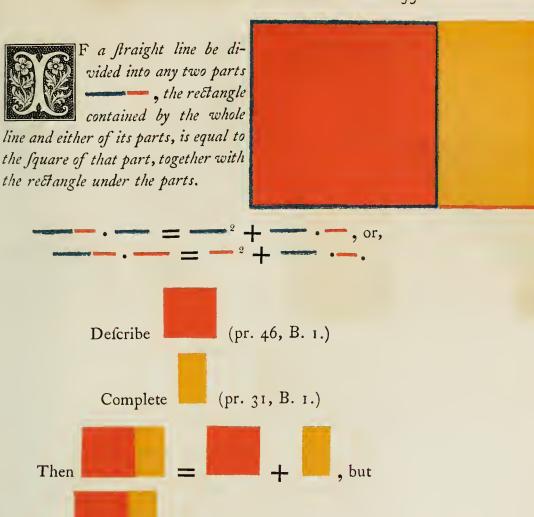




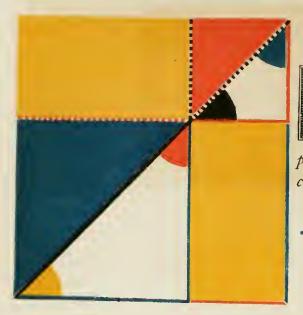
is equal to the sum of the rectangles contained by the undivided line, and the several parts of the divided line.

Draw ____ and = ___ (prs. 2. 3. B.1.); complete the parallelograms, that is to fay,



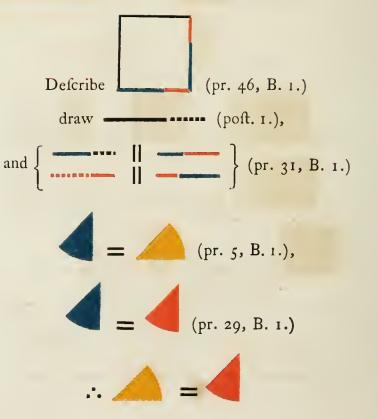


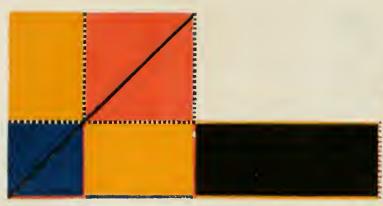
= -2, = --,



F a straight line be divided into any two parts ____, the square of the whole line is equal to the squares of the parts, together with twice the rectangle contained by the parts.

$$--^{2} = -^{2} + -^{2} +$$
twice ----





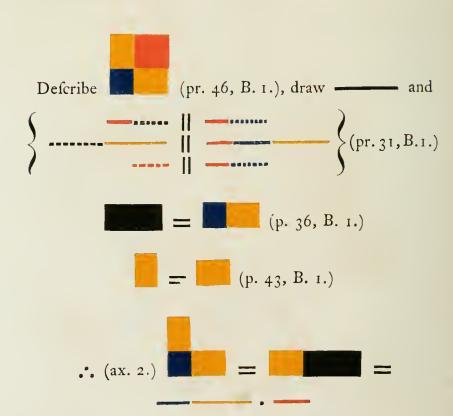


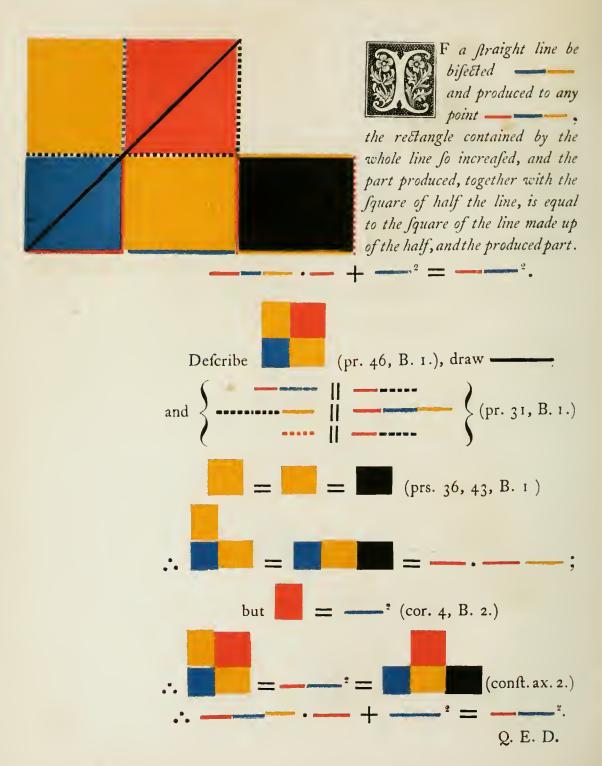
a straight line be divided

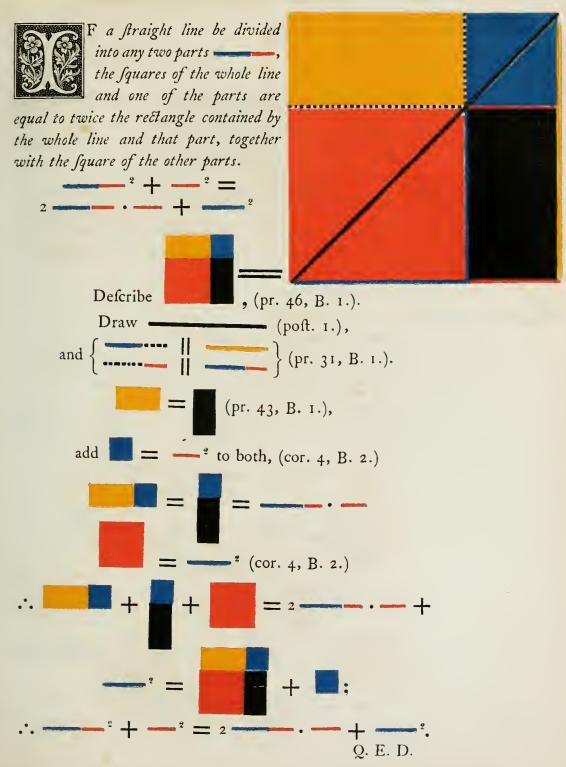
into two equal

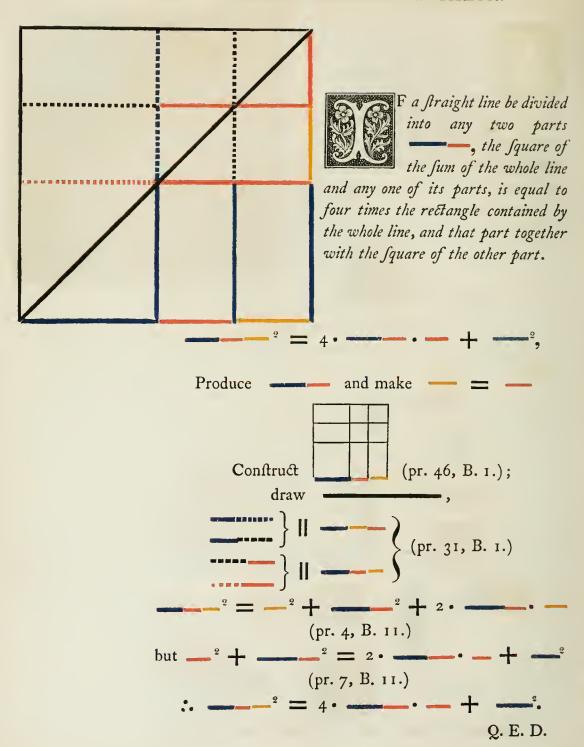
the unequal parts, together with the square of the line between the points of section, is equal to the square of half that line







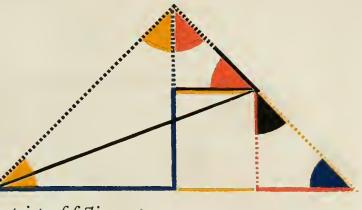




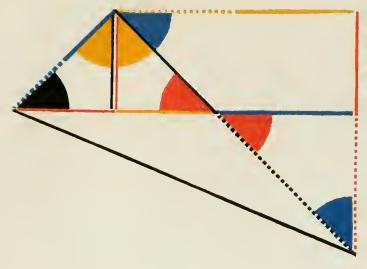


F a straight
line be divided
into two equal
parts

and also into two unequal parts , the squares of the unequal parts are together double the squares of half the line,

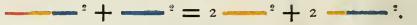


and of the part between the points of section.





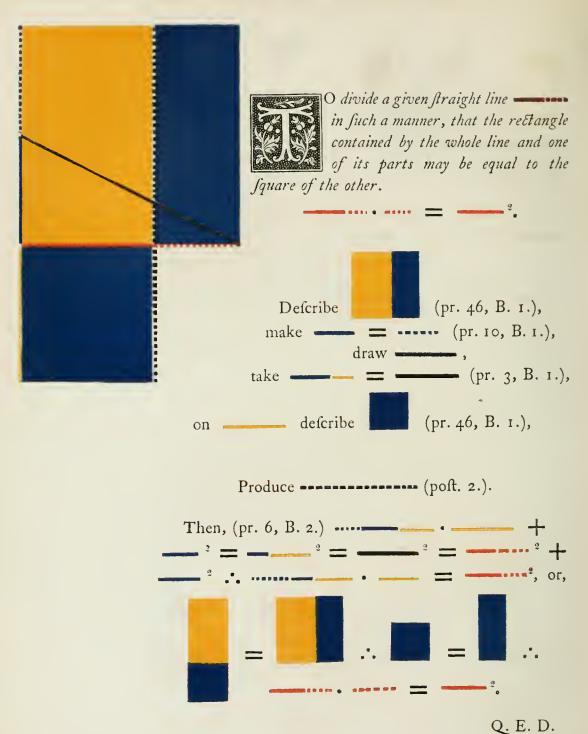
whole produced line, and of the produced part, are together double of the squares of the half line, and of the line made up of the half and produced part.



= a right angle.

half a right angle (prs. 5, 32, 29, 34, B. 1.),

, (prs. 6, 34, B. 1.). Hence by (pr. 47, B. 1.)

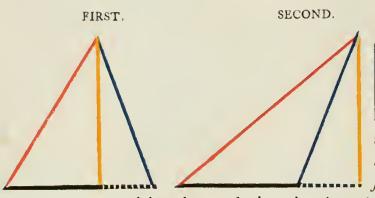




N any obtuse angled triangle, the square of the side subtending the obtuse angle

exceeds the sum of the squares of the sides containing the obtuse angle, by twice the rectangle contained by either of these sides and the produced parts of the same from the obtuse angle to the perpendicular let fall on it from the opposite acute angle.

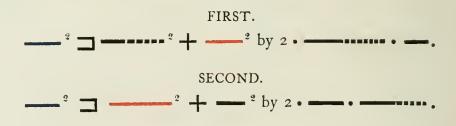




N any triangle, the fquare of the fide fubtend-

ing an acute angle, is less than the sum of the squares of the sides con-

taining that angle, by twice the rectangle contained by either of these sides, and the part of it intercepted between the foot of the perpendicular let fall on it from the opposite angle, and the angular point of the acute angle.

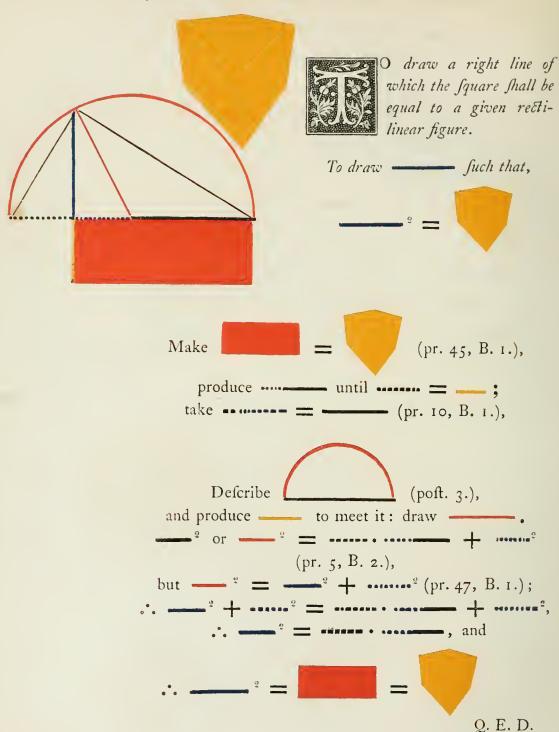


First, suppose the perpendicular to fall within the triangle, then (pr. 7, B. 2.)

and ... 2 3 ---- 2 by

Next suppose the perpendicular to fall without the triangle, then (pr. 7, B. 2.)

$$\frac{2}{2} + \frac{2}{2} = 2 \cdot \frac{2}{2} + \frac{2}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{2}$$
add to each $\frac{2}{2}$ then





BOOK III.

DEFINITIONS.

I.

QUAL circles are those whose diameters are equal.

II.

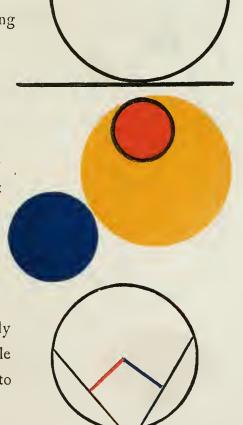
A right line is said to touch a circle when it meets the circle, and being produced does not cut it.

III.

Circles are faid to touch one another which meet but do not cut one another.

IV.

Right lines are faid to be equally distant from the centre of a circle when the perpendiculars drawn to them from the centre are equal.



V.

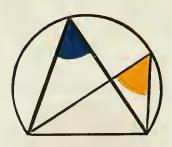
And the straight line on which the greater perpendicular falls is faid to be farther from the centre.



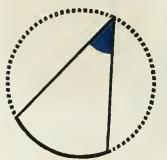
VI.

A fegment of a circle is the figure contained by a straight line and the part of the circumference it cuts off.





An angle in a fegment is the angle contained by two straight lines drawn from any point in the circumference of the fegment to the extremities of the straight line which is the base of the segment.



VIII.

An angle is faid to stand on the part of the circumference, or the arch, intercepted between the right lines that contain the angle.

IX.

A fector of a circle is the figure contained by two radii and the arch between them.

X.

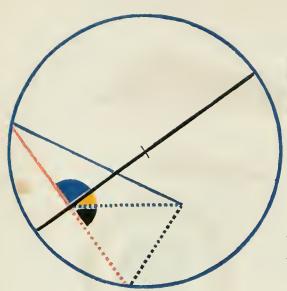
Similar fegments of circles are those which contain equal angles.

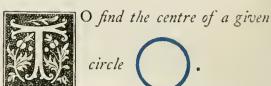
called concentric circles.



Circles which have the same centre are

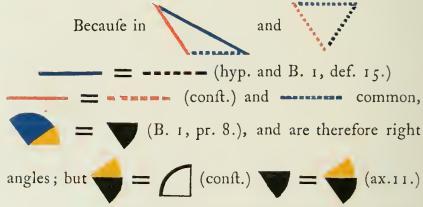




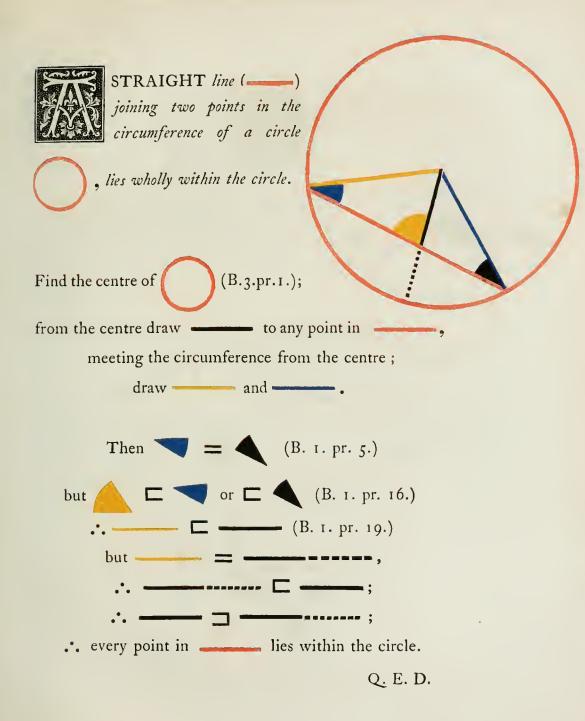


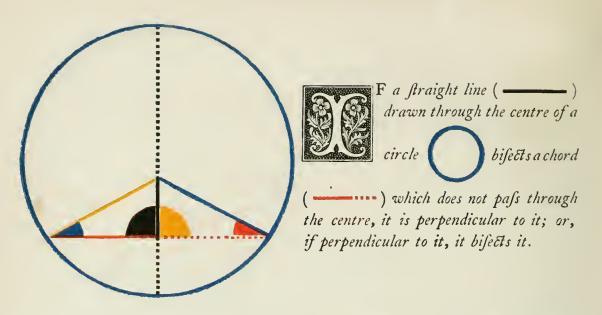
Draw within the circle any straight line ____, make ____; bisect ____, and the point of bisection is the centre.

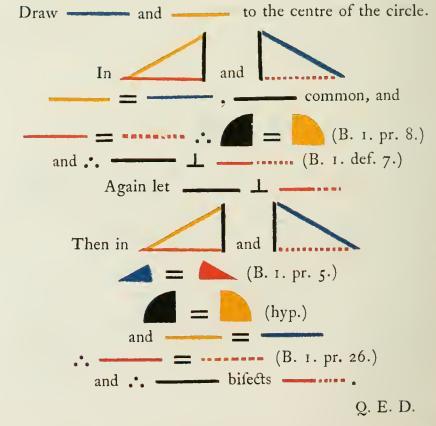
For, if it be possible, let any other point as the point of concourse of _____, ____ and _____ be the centre.



which is abfurd; therefore the affumed point is not the centre of the circle; and in the fame manner it can be proved that no other point which is not on _____ is the centre, therefore the centre is in _____, and therefore the point where _____ is bisected is the centre.





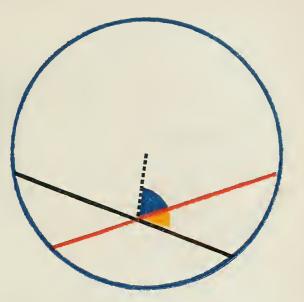




F in a circle two straight lines cut one another, which do not both pass through the centre, they do not bisect one

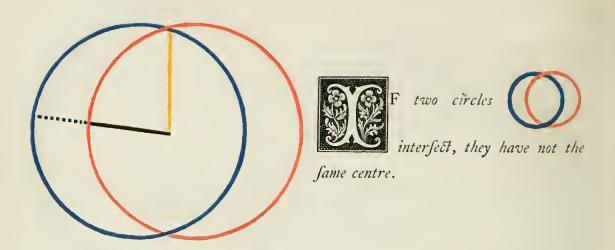
another.

If one of the lines pass through the centre, it is evident that it cannot be bisected by the other, which does not pass through the centre.



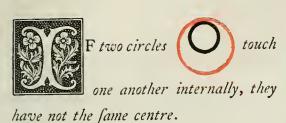
But if neither of the lines _____ or ____ or pass through the centre, draw _____ from the centre to their intersection.

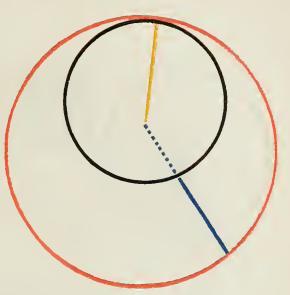
do not bifect one another.



Suppose it possible that two intersecting circles have a common centre; from such supposed centre draw to the intersecting point, and meeting the circumferences of the circles.

have the same centre.

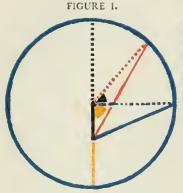


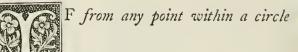


For, if it be possible, let both circles have the same centre; from such a supposed centre draw cutting both circles, and to the point of contact.

equal to the whole, which is abfurd;

therefore the assumed point is not the centre of both circles; and in the same manner it can be demonstrated that no other point is.





which is not the centre, lines



are drawn to the circumference; the greatest of those lines is that (which passes through the centre, and the least is the remaining part () of the diameter.

Of the others, that (______) which is nearer to the line passing through the centre, is greater than that (which is more remote.

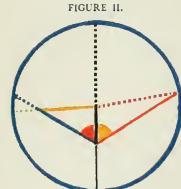
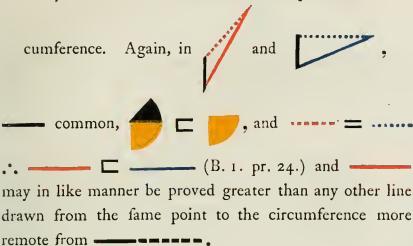
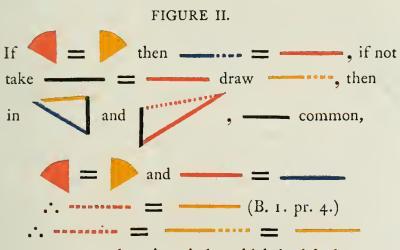


Fig. 2. The two lines (and _____) which make equal angles with that passing through the centre, on opposite sides of it, are equal to each other; and there cannot be drawn a third line equal to them, from the same point to the circumference.

FIGURE I.

then ---- (B. 1. def. 15.) (B. I. pr. 20.) in like manner ---- may be shewn to be greater than or any other line drawn from the same point to the circumference. Again, by (B. 1. pr. 20.) take ____ from both; ... ___ [ax.], and in like manner it may be shewn that _____ is less than any other line drawn from the same point to the cir-

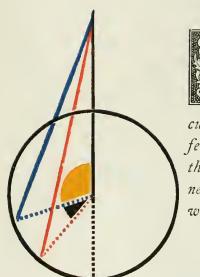




a part equal to the whole, which is abfurd:

drawn from the same point to the circumference; for if it were nearer to the one passing through the centre it would be greater, and if it were more remote it would be less.

The original text of this proposition is here divided into three parts.

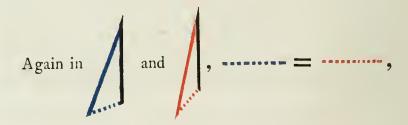


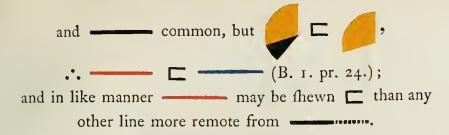
I.

F from a point without a circle, straight lines $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array}\right\}$ are drawn to the cir-

cumference; of those falling upon the concave circumference the greatest is that (______) which passes through the centre, and the line (______) which is nearer the greatest is greater than that (______) which is more remote.

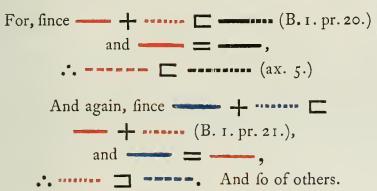
Draw and to the centre.





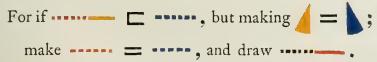
II.

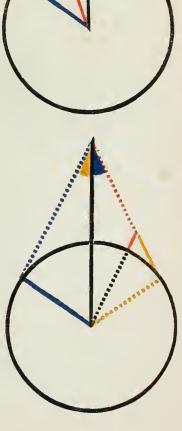
Of those lines falling on the convex circumference the least is that (-----) which being produced would pass through the centre, and the line which is nearer to the least is less than that which is more remote.

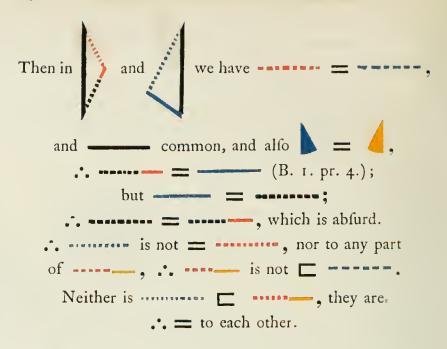


III.

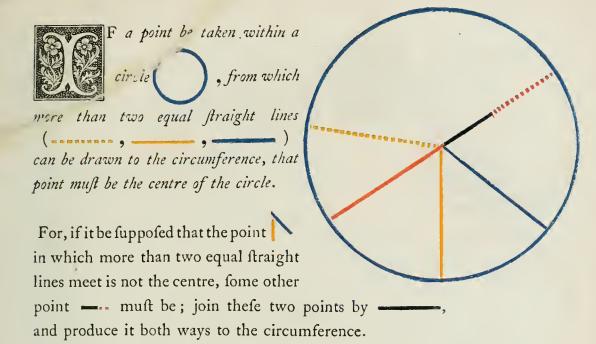
Also the lines making equal angles with that which passes through the centre are equal, whether falling on the concave or convex circumference; and no third line can be drawn equal to them from the same point to the circumference.







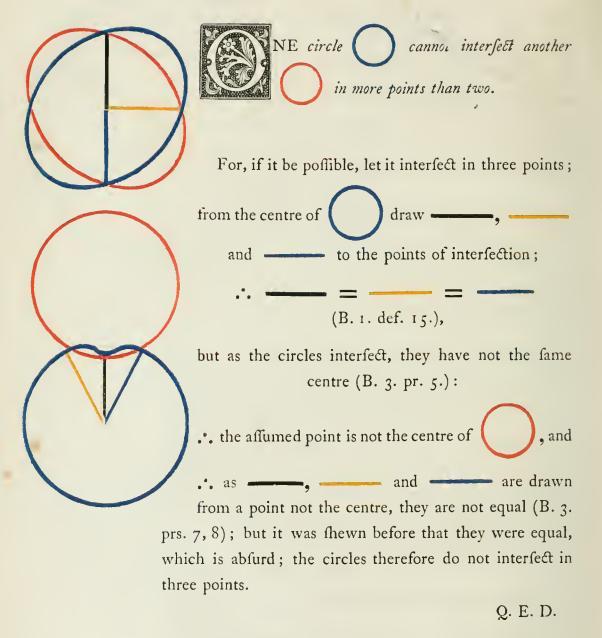
And any other line drawn from the same point to the circumference must lie at the same side with one of these lines, and be more or less remote than it from the line passing through the centre, and cannot therefore be equal to it.

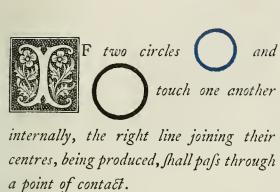


Then fince more than two equal straight lines are drawn from a point which is not the centre, to the circumference, two of them at least must lie at the same side of the diameter

and fince from a point, which is not the centre, straight lines are drawn to the circumference; the greatest is _____, which passes through the centre: and _____ which is nearer to _____, ___ which is more remote (B. 3. pr. 8.); but _____ = ___ (hyp.) which is absurd.

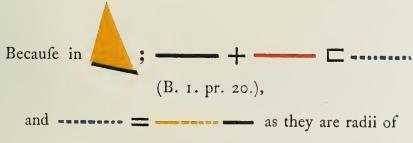
The same may be demonstrated of any other point, different from , which must be the centre of the circle.



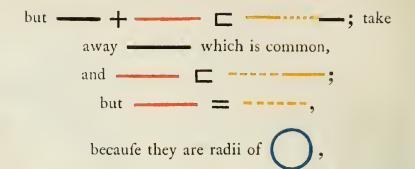


For, if it be possible, let join their centres, and produce it both ways; from a point of contact draw

to the centre of , and from the fame point of contact draw ----- to the centre of

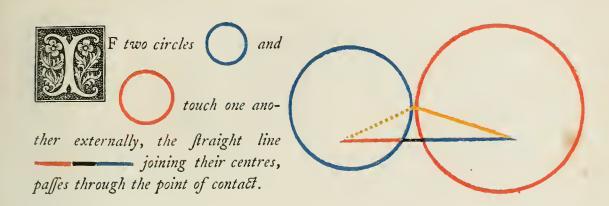






and ... a part greater than the whole, which is abfurd.

The centres are not therefore so placed, that a line joining them can pass through any point but a point of contact.



If it be possible, let _____ join the centres, and not pass through a point of contact; then from a point of contact draw ____ and ____ to the centres.

The centres are not therefore so placed, that the line joining them can pass through any point but the point of contact.

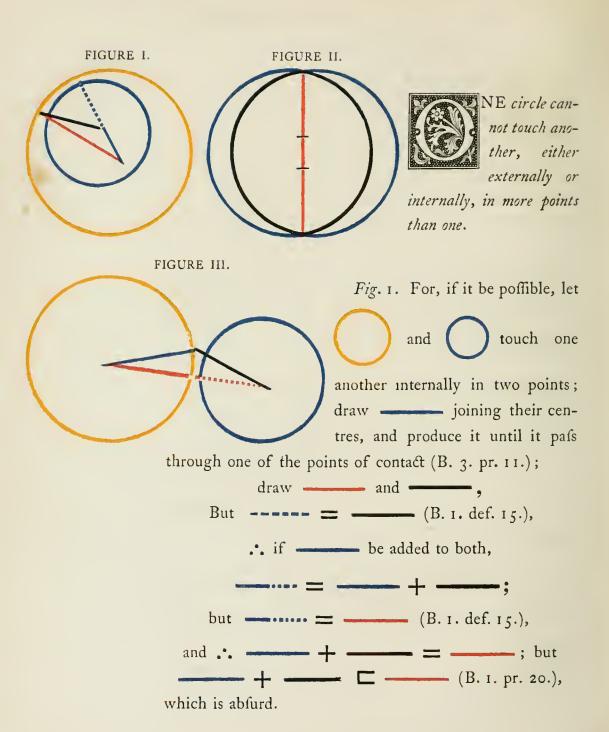
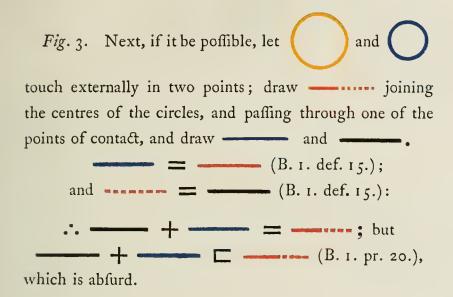
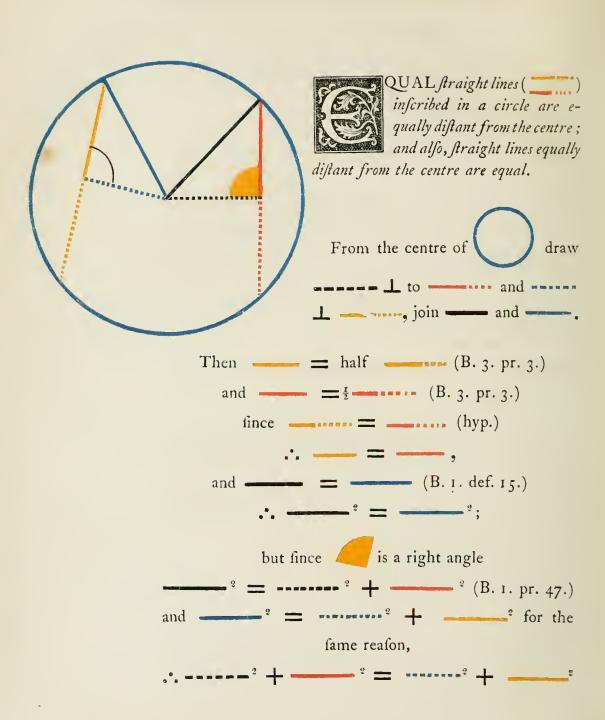


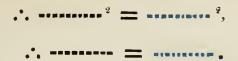
Fig. 2. But if the points of contact be the extremities of the right line joining the centres, this straight line must be bisected in two different points for the two centres; because it is the diameter of both circles, which is absurd.



There is therefore no case in which two circles can touch one another in two points.

Q E.D.

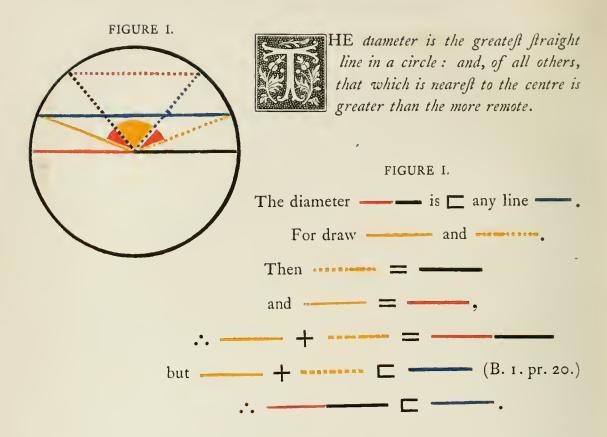




Alfo, if the lines and be equally distant from the centre; that is to say, if the perpendiculars and be given equal, then

For, as in the preceding case,

and are also equal.



Again, the line which is nearer the centre is greater than the one more remote.

First, let the given lines be and, which are at the same side of the centre and do not intersect;



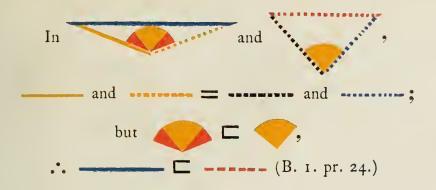
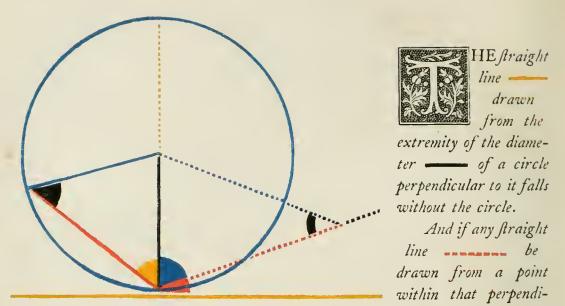


FIGURE II. Let the given lines be and which either are at different fides of the centre, or interfect; from the centre draw and make and and draw and draw

Since and are equally diftant from the centre, (B. 3. pr. 14.);
but (Pt. 1. B. 3. pr. 15.),



cular to the point of contact, it cuts the circle.

PART I

If it be possible, let _____, which meets the circle again, be _____, and draw _____.

and ... each of these angles is acute. (B. 1. pr. 17.)

PART II.

Let be ____ and let ____ be drawn from a point ____ between ____ and the circle, which, if it be possible, does not cut the circle.

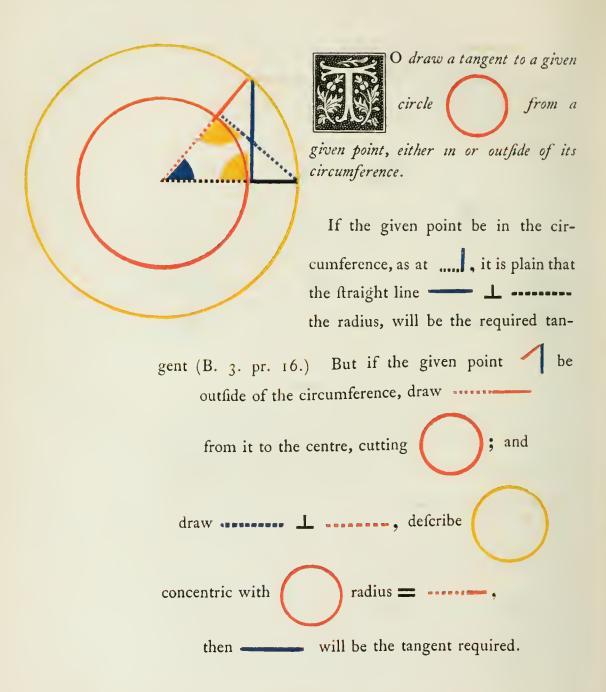


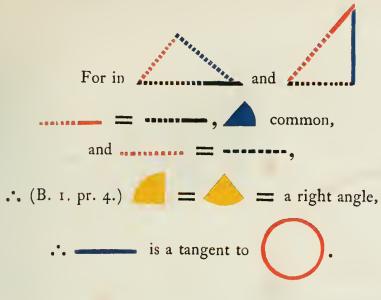
is an acute angle; fuppose

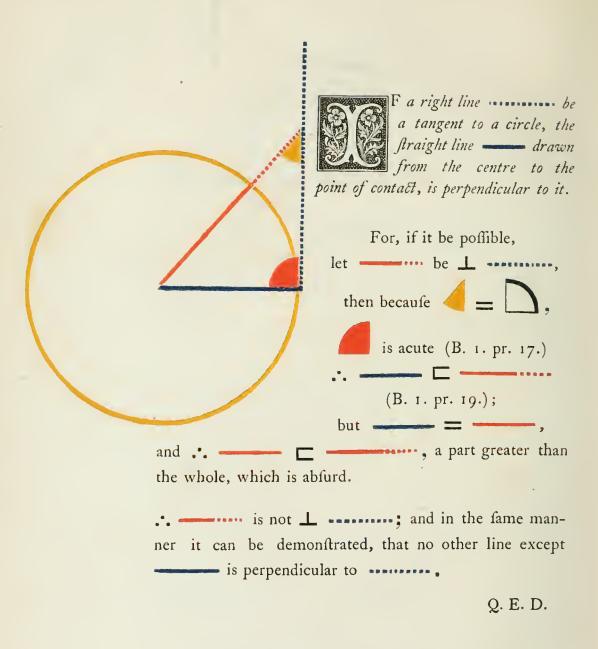
drawn from the centre of the circle, it must fall at the side of the acute angle.

which is supposed to be a right angle, is

and, a part greater than the whole, which is abfurd. Therefore the point does not fall outfide the circle, and therefore the straight line cuts the circle.









For, if it be possible, let the centre be without _____, and draw from the supposed centre to the point of contact.

but = (hyp.), and ... = a part equal to the whole, which is abfurd.

Therefore the affumed point is not the centre; and in the fame manner it can be demonstrated, that no other point without _____ is the centre.

FIGURE 1



HE angle at the centre of a circle, is double the angle at the circumference, when they have the fame part of the circumference for their base.

FIGURE I.

Let the centre of the circle be on _____

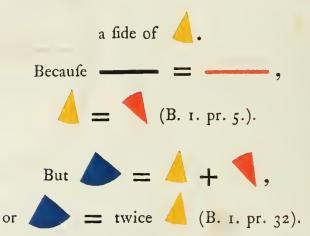


FIGURE II.

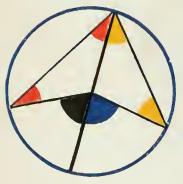
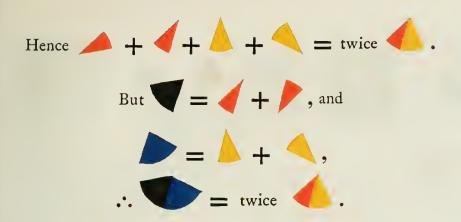


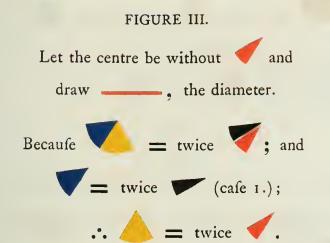
FIGURE II.

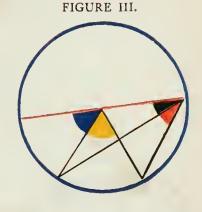
Let the centre be within , the angle at the circumference; draw from the angular point through the centre of the circle;



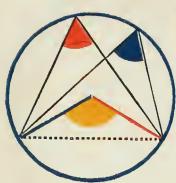
because of the equality of the sides (B. 1. pr. 5).











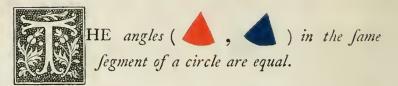
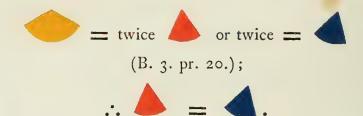


FIGURE I.

Let the fegment be greater than a femicircle, and draw and to the centre.





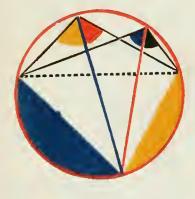
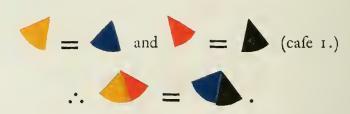


FIGURE II.

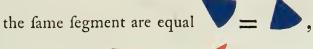
Let the fegment be a femicircle, or 1efs than a femicircle, draw the diameter, also draw





of any quadrilateral figure inscribed in a circle, are together equal to two right angles.

Draw and the diagonals; and because angles in

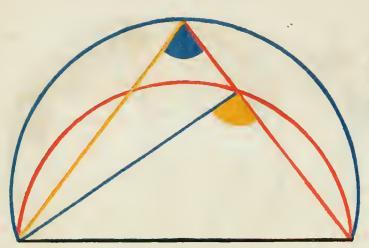


and = ;

add to both.

two right angles (B. 1. pr. 32.). In like manner it may be shown that,

$$+ = \triangle$$

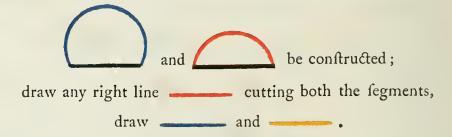




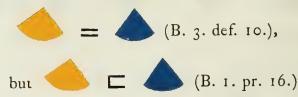
PON the same
straight line,
and upon the
same side of it,

two similar segments of circles cannot be constructed which do not coincide.

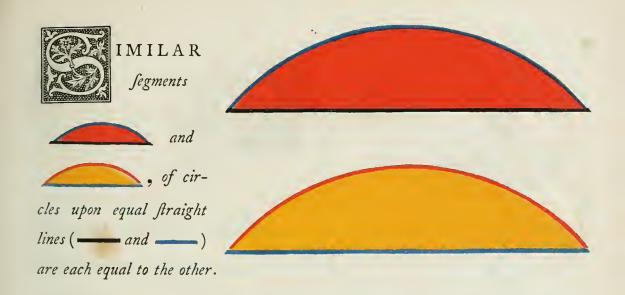
For if it be possible, let two similar fegments



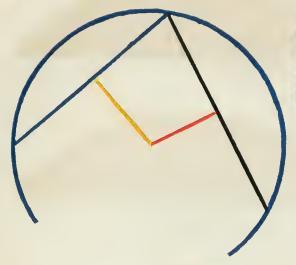
Because the segments are similar,



which is abfurd: therefore no point in either of the fegments falls without the other, and therefore the fegments coincide.



For, if be so applied to that ______, the extremities of may be on the extremities and at the same side as because = = must wholly coincide with and the similar segments being then upon the same straight line and at the same side of it, must also coincide (B. 3. pr. 23.), and are therefore equal.



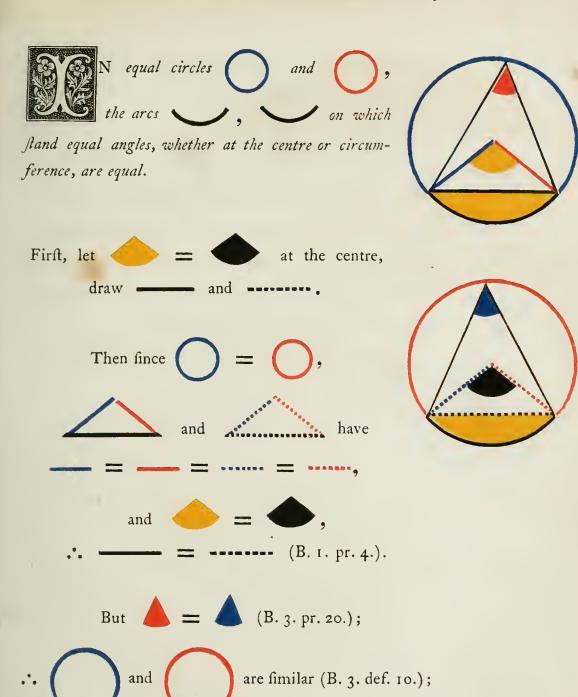


SEGMENT of a circle being given, to describe the circle of which it is the segment.

From	any	point	in	the	fegment
draw 🕳		and			bisect
them, and	d from	n the p	oin	ts of	bisection

and ____ __

where they meet is the centre of the circle.



they are also equal (B. 3. pr. 24.)

If therefore the equal fegments be taken from the equal circles, the remaining fegments will be equal;

hence
$$=$$
 $=$ $(ax. 3.);$ and \therefore $=$ $(ax. 3.);$

But if the given equal angles be at the circumference, it is evident that the angles at the centre, being double of those at the circumference, are also equal, and therefore the arcs on which they stand are equal.



N equal circles,



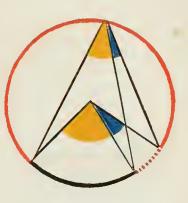






and which stand upon equal

arches are equal, whether they be at the centres or at the circumferences.



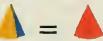
For if it be possible, let one of them



be greater than the other



and make

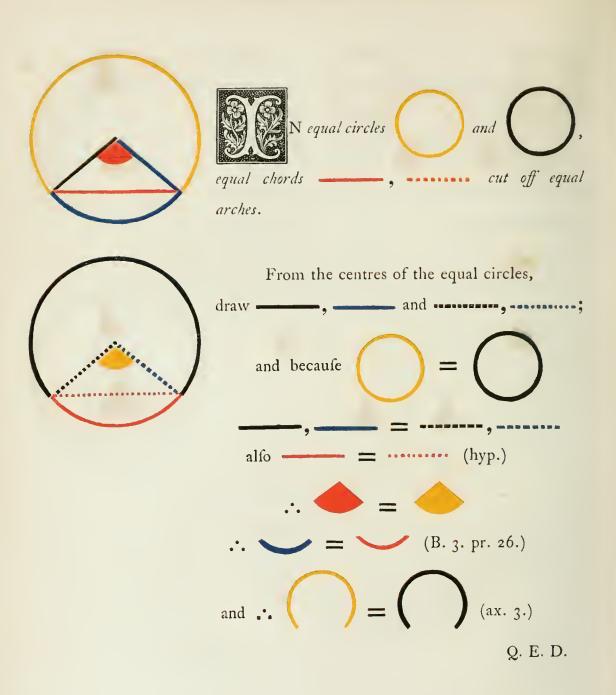


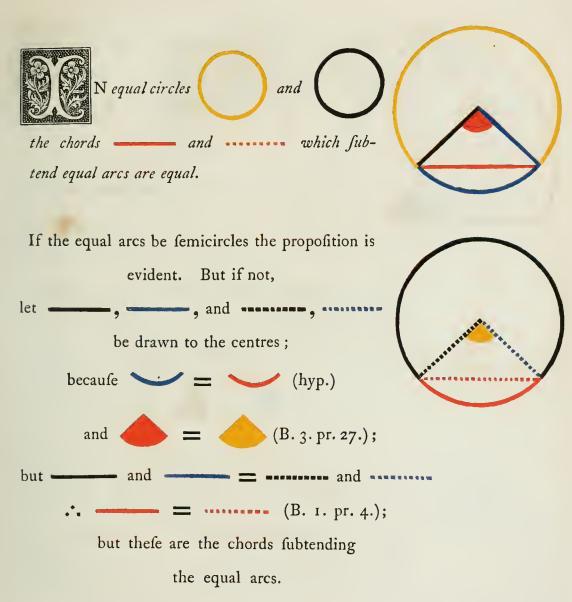
*** (B. 3. pr. 26.)

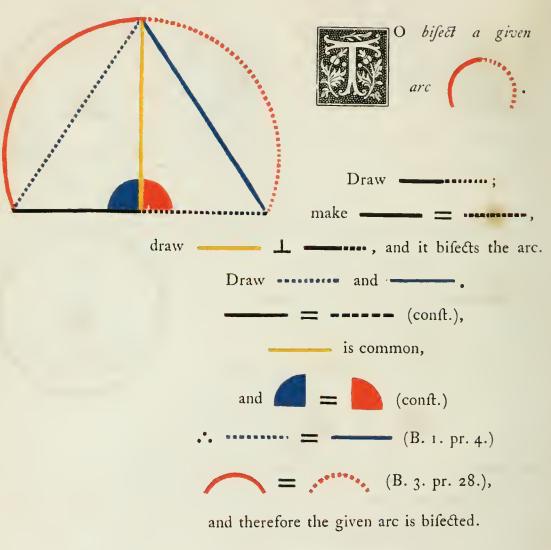
= (hyp.)

= v a part equal

to the whole, which is abfurd; ... neither angle is greater than the other, and ... they are equal.









N a circle the angle in a semicircle is a right angle, the angle in a fegment greater than a semicircle is acute, and the angle in a segment less than a semicircle is obtuse.

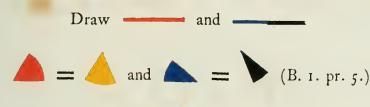
FIGURE I.

FIGURE I.

The angle



in a semicircle is a right angle.





right angles = a right angle. (B. 1. pr. 32.)

FIGURE II.

The angle in a fegment greater than a femicircle is acute.

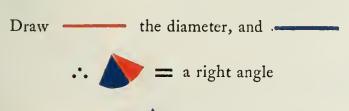




FIGURE II.

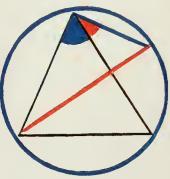
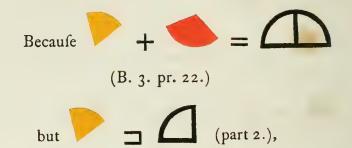


FIGURE III.

FIGURE III.

The angle in a fegment less than semicircle is obtuse.

Take in the opposite circumference any point, to which draw and _____.







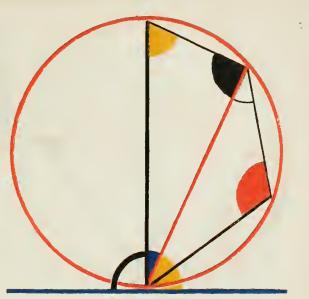
F a right line
be a tangent to a circle,
and from the point of contact a right line

be drawn cutting the circle, the angle



made by this line with the tangent

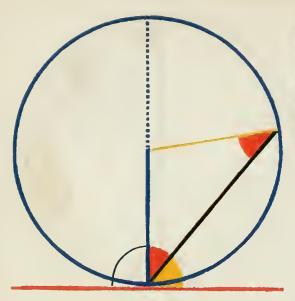
is equal to the angle in the alterate fegment of the circle.



If the chord should pass through the centre, it is evident the angles are equal, for each of them is a right angle. (B. 3. prs. 16, 31.)

But if not, draw _____ _ _ from the point of contact, it must pass through the centre of the circle, (B. 3. pr. 19.)

.. (ax.), which is the angle in the alternate fegment.



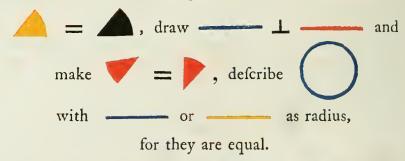


N a given straight line to describe a segment of a circle that shall contain an angle equal to a given angle



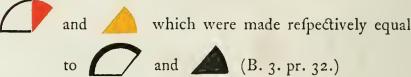
If the given angle be a right angle, bifect the given line, and describe a semicircle on it, this will evidently contain a right angle. (B. 3. pr. 31.)

If the given angle be acute or obtuse, make with the given line, at its extremity,





divides the circle into two fegments capable of containing angles equal to





O cut off from a given cir-

which shall contain an angle equal to a

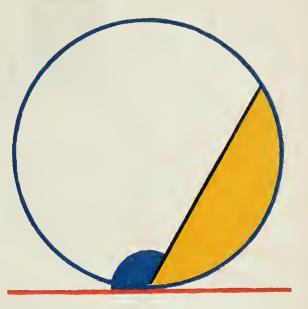
given angle



(B. 3. pr. 17.),

a tangent to the circle at any point;

at the point of contact make



= the given angle;



contains an angle = the given angle.

Because ____ is a tangent,

and ____ cuts it, the



(B. 3. pr. 32.),

(conft.)

FIGURE 1.



F two chords { _____} in a circle intersect each other, the rectangle contained by the segments of the one is equal to the restangle contained by the segments of the other.

FIGURE I.

If the given right lines pass through the centre, they are bisected in the point of intersection, hence the rectangles under their fegments are the fquares of their halves, and are therefore equal.

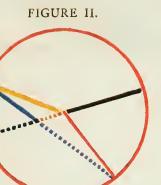


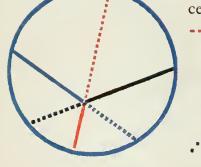
FIGURE II.

Let pass through the centre, and not; draw and Then ____ × ----- = ___ 2 __ or — × ··· = ··· ≥ ··· × ··· = ··· × ··· × ··· = ··· × ·· × ·· × ··· × · (B. 2. pr. 5.).



FIGURE III.

Let neither of the given lines pass through the centre, draw through their interfection a diameter



F from a point without a circle two straight lines be drawn to it, one of which is a tangent to

the circle, and the other

cuts it; the rectangle under the whole

cutting line — and the

external fegment — is equal to

the square of the tangent —

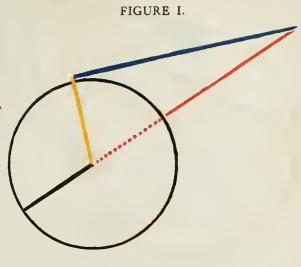


FIGURE I.

Let _____ pass through the centre;

draw ____ from the centre to the point of contact;

____ 2 ____ minus ____ 2 (B. 1. pr. 47),

or ____ 2 ____ minus ____ 2,

(B. 2. pr. 6).

FIGURE II.

If do not pass through the centre, draw and ...

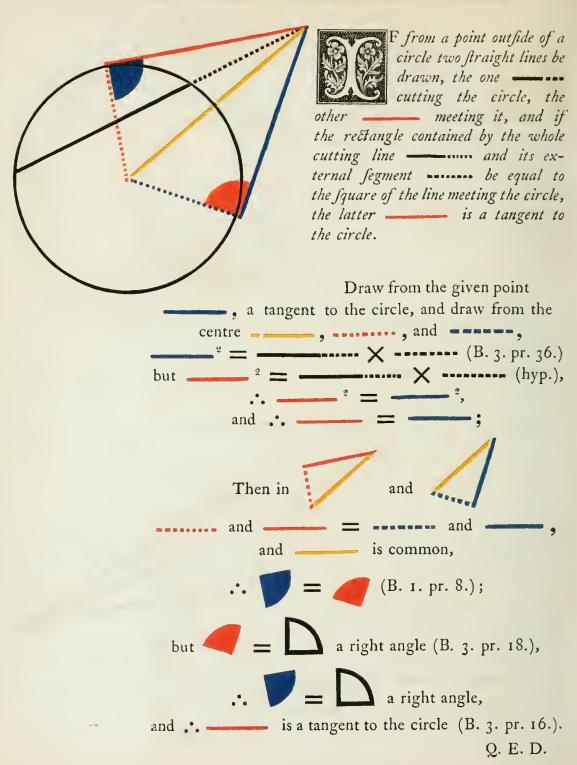
Then X

(B. 2. pr. 6), that is,

X = 2 minus 2,

(B. 3. pr. 18).

Q. E. D.





BOOK IV.

DEFINITIONS.

I.



RECTILINEAR figure is faid to be *inscribed in* another, when all the angular points of the inscribed figure are on

when all the angular points of the inscribed figure are on the sides of the figure in which it is said to be inscribed.

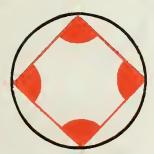


II.

A FIGURE is faid to be described about another figure, when all the fides of the circumscribed figure pass through the angular points of the other figure.

III.

A RECTILINEAR figure is faid to be infcribed in a circle, when the vertex of each angle of the figure is in the circumference of the circle.



IV.

A RECTILINEAR figure is faid to be *cir-cumfcribed about* a circle, when each of its fides is a tangent to the circle.

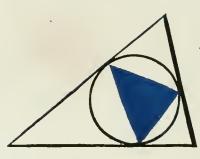




V.

A CIRCLE is faid to be *infcribed in* a rectilinear figure, when each fide of the figure is a tangent to the circle.

VI.



A circle is faid to be circumfcribed about a rectilinear figure, when the circumference paffes through the vertex of each angle of the figure.



is circumscribed.

VII.

A STRAIGHT line is faid to be inscribed in a circle, when its extremities are in the circumference.

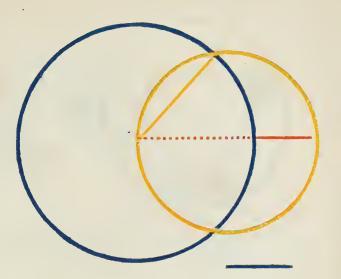
The Fourth Book of the Elements is devoted to the solution of problems, chiefly relating to the inscription and circumscription of regular polygons and circles.

A regular polygon is one whose angles and sides are equal.



circle.

N a given circle



Draw, the diameter of;
and if _____, then
the problem is folved.

But if _____ be not equal to ____,

make ____ (hyp.);

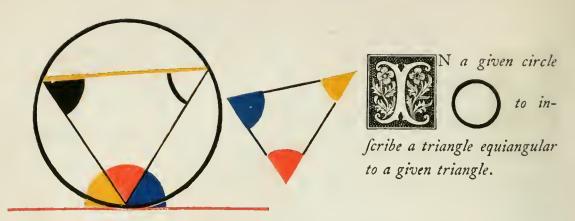
make ____ (B. 1. pr. 3.) with

as radius,

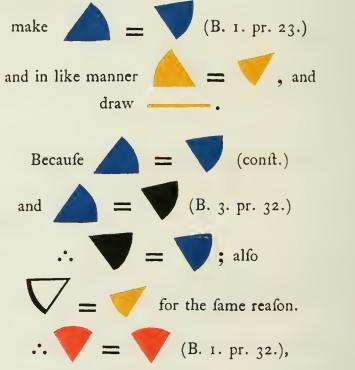
describe , cutting , and

draw, which is the line required.

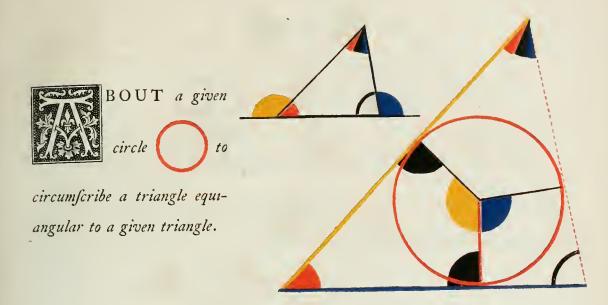
(B. 1. def. 15. conft.)



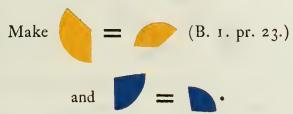
To any point of the given circle draw, a tangent (B. 3. pr. 17.); and at the point of contact



and therefore the triangle inscribed in the circle is equiangular to the given one.

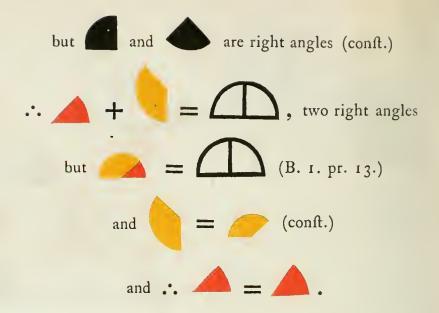


Produce any fide _____, of the given triangle both ways; from the centre of the given circle draw any radius.



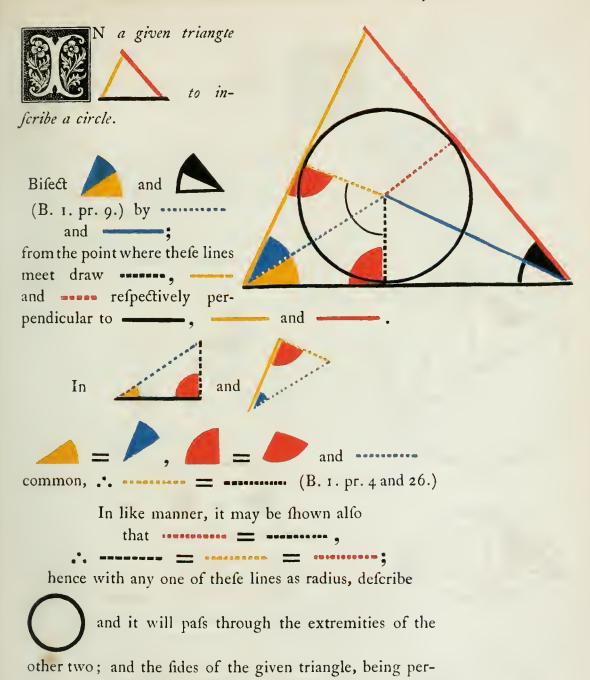
At the extremities of the three radii, draw and tangents to the given circle. (B. 3. pr. 17.)

, taken together, are The four angles of equal to four right angles. (B. 1. pr. 32.)



In the same manner it can be demonstrated that

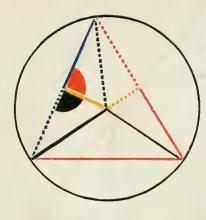
and therefore the triangle circumscribed about the given circle is equiangular to the given triangle.



pendicular to the three radii at their extremities, touch the circle (B. 3. pr. 16.), which is therefore inscribed in the

S

given circle.

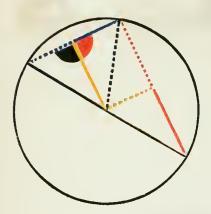


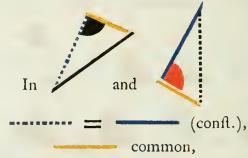


O describe a circle about a given triangle.

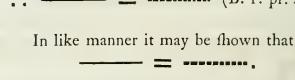
Make = and = = (B. 1. pr. 10.)

From the points of bisection draw _____ and ____ and ____ respectively (B. 1. pr. 11.), and from their point of concourse draw _____, and ____ and ____ and describe a circle with any one of them, and it will be the circle required.





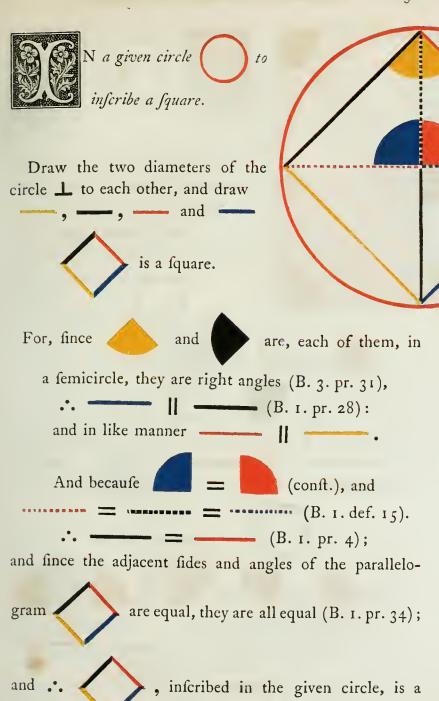




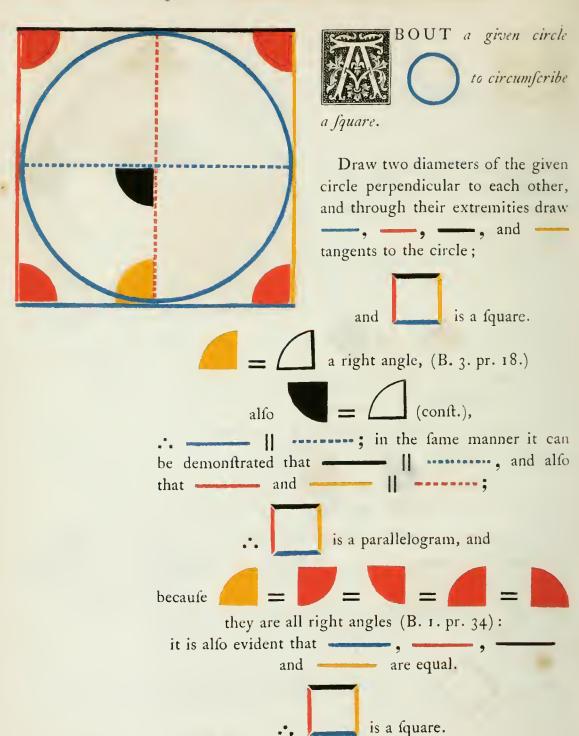
therefore a circle described from the concourse of these three lines with any one of them as a radius will circumscribe the given triangle.

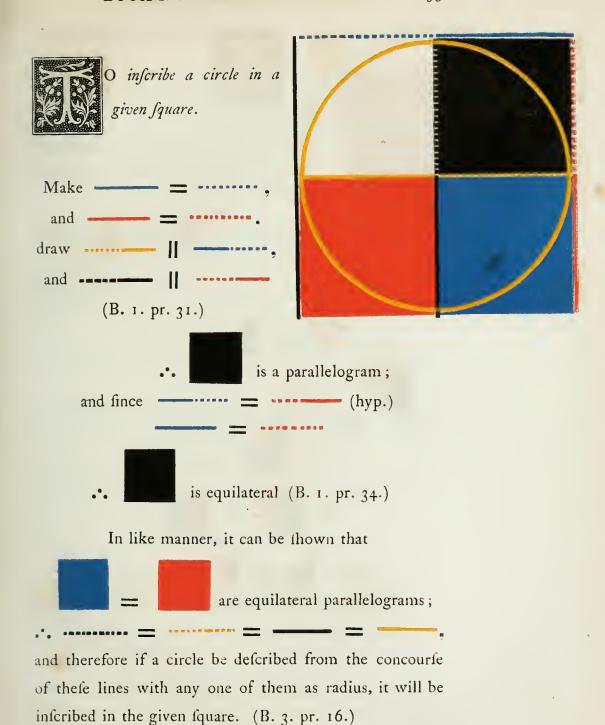


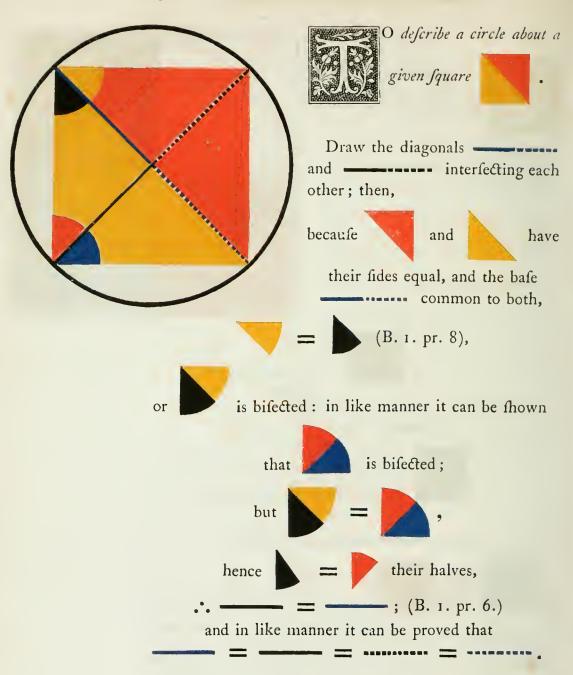
Q. E. D.



square.







If from the confluence of these lines with any one of them as radius, a circle be described, it will circumscribe the given square.



O construct an isosceles triangle, in which each of the angles at the base shall be double of the vertical

angle.

Take any straight line and divide it so that

(B. 2. pr. 11.)

With _____ as radius, describe

and place

in it from the extremity of the radius, ______,

(B. 4. pr. 1); draw

Then is the required triangle.

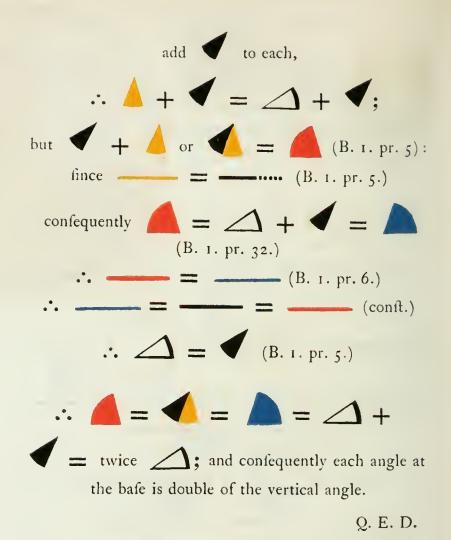
For, draw and describe

(B. 4. pr. 5.)

Since — × — = — 2 = — 3

.. — is a tangent to (B. 3. pr. 37.)

.. = (B. 3. pr. 32),





N a given circle



to inscribe an equilateral and equiangular pentagon.

Construct an isosceles triangle, in which each of the angles at the base shall be double of the angle at the vertex, and inscribe in the given



circle a triangle



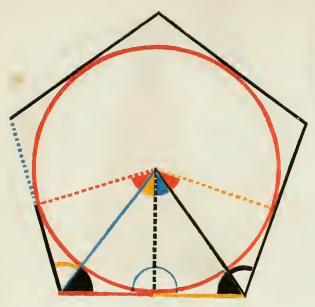
equiangular to it; (B. 4. pr. 2.)



and draw

Because each of the angles

and are equal, the arcs upon which they stand are equal, (B. 3. pr. 26.) and :. _____, ____, which fubtend these arcs are equal (B. 3. pr. 29.) and ... the pentagon is equilateral, it is also equiangular, as each of its angles stand upon equal arcs. (B. 3. pr. 27).





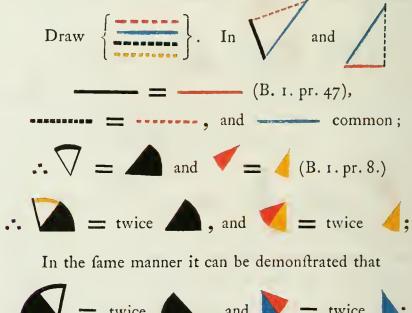
O describe an equilateral and equiangular pentagon about a given circle

0

Draw five tangents through the vertices of the angles of any regular pentagon inscribed in the given

circle (B. 3. pr. 17).

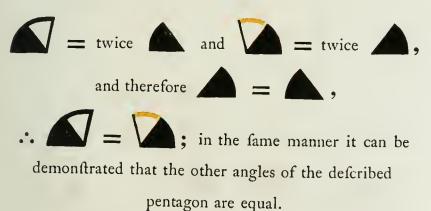
These five tangents will form the required pentagon.

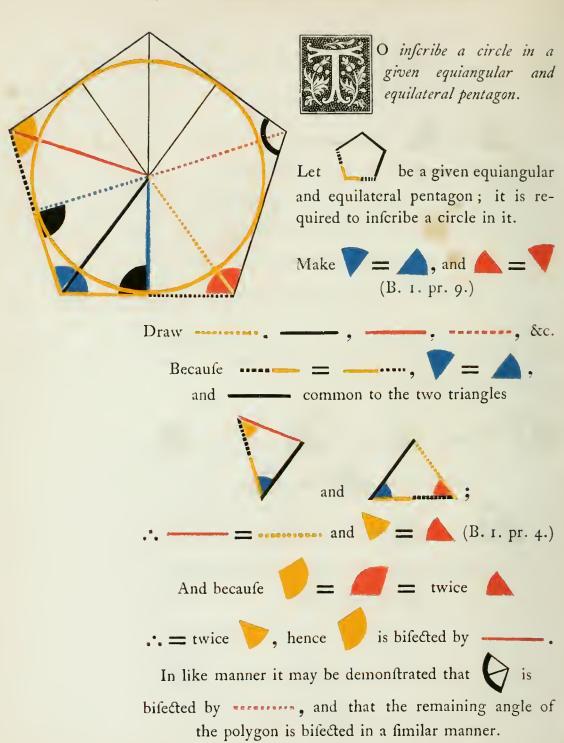


= twice , and = twice ;

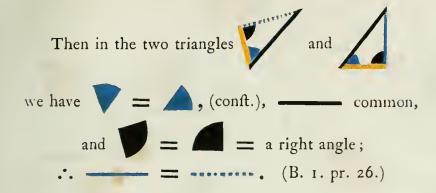
but = (B. 3. pr. 27),

In the same manner it can be demonstrated that the other sides are equal, and therefore the pentagon is equilateral, it is also equiangular, for



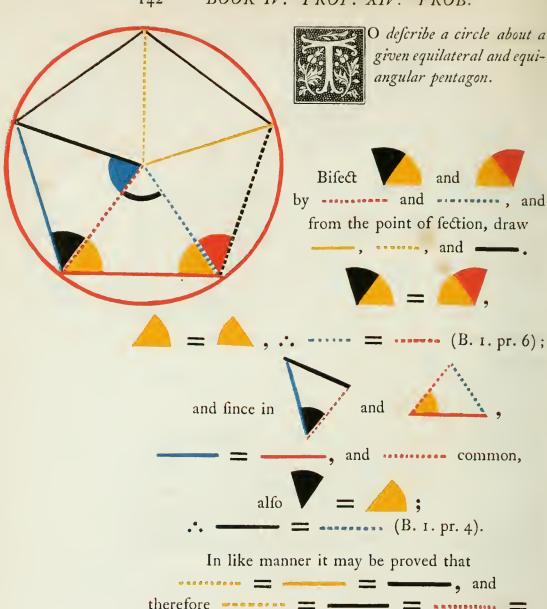


Draw _____, &c. perpendicular to the fides of the pentagon.



In the same way it may be shown that the five perpendiculars on the sides of the pentagon are equal to one another.

Describe with any one of the perpendiculars as radius, and it will be the inscribed circle required. For if it does not touch the sides of the pentagon, but cut them, then a line drawn from the extremity at right angles to the diameter of a circle will fall within the circle, which has been shown to be absurd. (B. 3. pr. 16.)

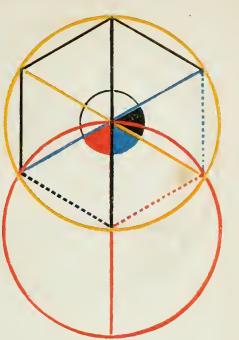


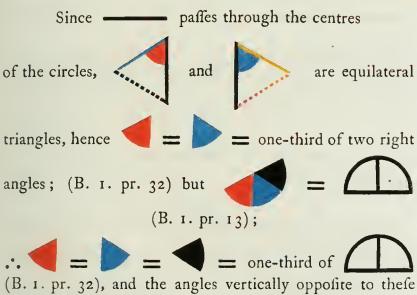
Therefore if a circle be described from the point where these five lines meet, with any one of them as a radius, it will circumscribe the given pentagon.



O inscribe an equilateral and equiangular hexagon in a given circle

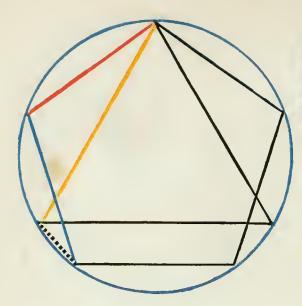
From any point in the circumference of the given circle describe passing through its centre, and draw the diameters and draw the diameters draw, &c. and the required hexagon is inscribed in the given circle.





(B. 1. pr. 32), and the angles vertically opposite to these are all equal to one another (B. 1. pr. 15), and stand on equal arches (B. 3. pr. 26), which are subtended by equal chords (B. 3. pr. 29); and since each of the angles of the hexagon is double of the angle of an equilateral triangle, it is also equiangular.

Q. E. D.





O inscribe an equilateral and equiangular quindecagon in a given circle.

Let _____ and _____ be the fides of an equilateral pentagon inscribed in the given circle, and _____ the side of an inscribed equilateral triangle.

The arc fubtended by $= \frac{2}{5} = \frac{6}{15}$ of the whole circumference.

The arc fubtended by $= \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{15}$ of the whole circumference. Their difference $=\frac{1}{15}$

• the arc subtended by $\frac{1}{1.5}$ difference of the whole circumference.

Hence if straight lines equal to •••••• be placed in the circle (B. 4. pr. 1), an equilateral and equiangular quindecagon will be thus inscribed in the circle.



BOOK V.

DEFINITIONS.

I.



LESS magnitude is faid to be an aliquot part or fubmultiple of a greater magnitude, when the less measures the greater; that is, when the less is contained a certain number of times ex-

actly in the greater.

II.

A GREATER magnitude is faid to be a multiple of a less, when the greater is measured by the less; that is, when the greater contains the less a certain number of times exactly.

III.

RATIO is the relation which one quantity bears to another of the same kind, with respect to magnitude.

IV.

MAGNITUDES are faid to have a ratio to one another, when they are of the same kind; and the one which is not the greater can be multiplied so as to exceed the other.

The other definitions will be given throughout the book where their aid is first required.

AXIOMS.



I.

QUIMULTIPLES or equisubmultiples of the same, or of equal magnitudes, are equal.

If A = B, then
twice A = twice B, that is,

$$2 A = 2 B;$$

 $3 A = 3 B;$
 $4 A = 4 B;$
&c. &c.
and $\frac{1}{2}$ of A = $\frac{1}{2}$ of B;
 $\frac{1}{3}$ of A = $\frac{1}{3}$ of B;
&c. &c.

II.

A MULTIPLE of a greater magnitude is greater than the same multiple of a less.

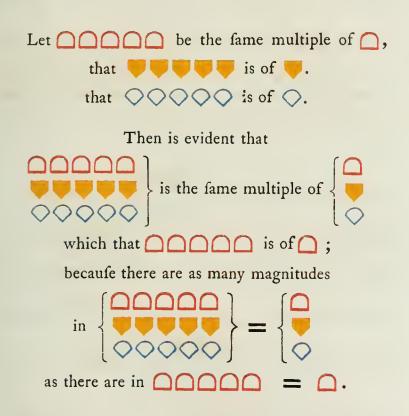
III.

THAT magnitude, of which a multiple is greater than the fame multiple of another, is greater than the other.



F any number of magnitudes be equimultiples of as many others, each of each: what multiple soever any one of the first is of its part, the same multiple shall of the first magnitudes taken together be of all

the others taken together.



The same demonstration holds in any number of magnitudes, which has here been applied to three.

... If any number of magnitudes, &c.



F the first magnitude be the same multiple of the second that the third is of the sourth, and the fifth the same multiple of the second that the fixth is of the sourth, then shall the first, together with the same multiple of the second that the third together

fifth, be the same multiple of the second that the third, together with the sixth, is of the fourth.

Let , the first, be the same multiple of , the second, that \(\frac{1}{2} \), the third, is of \(\frac{1}{2} \), the fourth; and let \(\frac{1}{2} \), the fifth, be the same multiple of \(\frac{1}{2} \), the second, that \(\frac{1}{2} \) \(\frac{1}{2} \), the sixth, is of \(\frac{1}{2} \), the fourth.

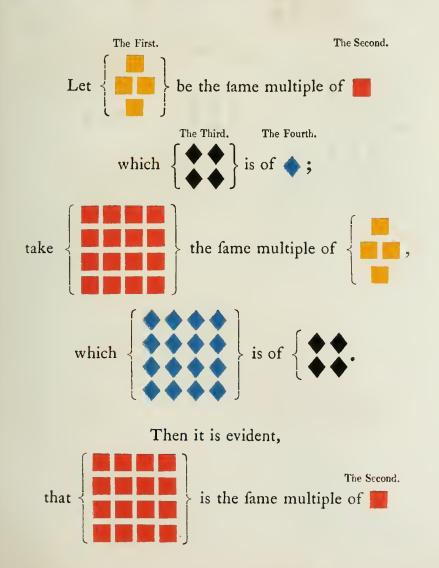
Then it is evident, that $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \bullet \bullet \bullet \\ \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \end{array}\right\}$, the first and fifth together, is the same multiple of \bullet , the second, that $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \\ \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \end{array}\right\}$, the third and sixth together, is of the same multiple of \bullet , the source there are as many magnitudes in $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \\ \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \end{array}\right\}$ = \bullet as there are in $\left\{\begin{array}{c} \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \\ \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \bullet \end{array}\right\}$ = \bullet .

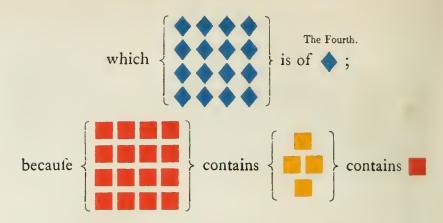
... If the first magnitude, &c.



F the first of four magnitudes be the same multiple of the second that the third is of the fourth, and if any equimultiples whatever of the first and third be taken, those shall be equimultiples; one of the

second, and the other of the fourth.





as many times as

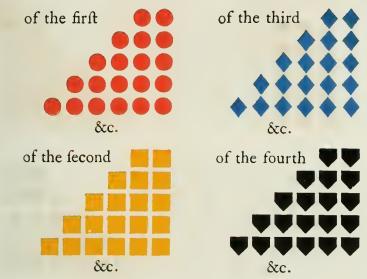


The same reasoning is applicable in all cases.

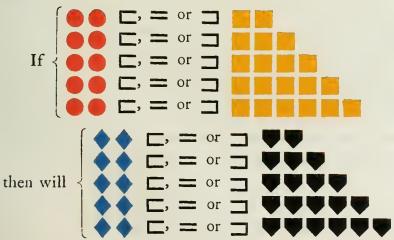
.. If the first four, &c.

DEFINITION V.

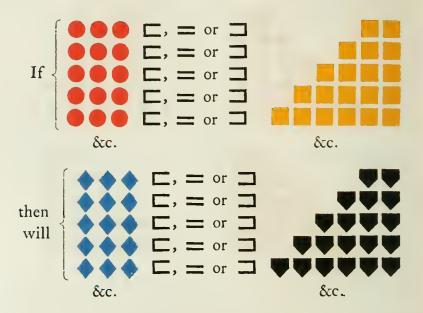
Four magnitudes, , , , , are faid to be proportionals when every equimultiple of the first and third be taken, and every equimultiple of the second and fourth, as,



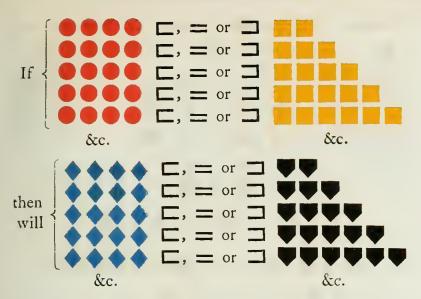
Then taking every pair of equimultiples of the first and third, and every pair of equimultiples of the second and fourth,



That is, if twice the first be greater, equal, or less than twice the second, twice the third will be greater, equal, or less than twice the fourth; or, if twice the first be greater, equal, or less than three times the second, twice the third will be greater, equal, or less than three times the fourth, and so on, as above expressed.



In other terms, if three times the first be greater, equal, or less than twice the second, three times the third will be greater, equal, or less than twice the fourth; or, if three times the first be greater, equal, or less than three times the second, then will three times the third be greater, equal, or less than three times the fourth; or if three times the first be greater, equal, or less than four times the second, then will three times the third be greater, equal, or less than four times the fourth, and so on. Again,



And so on, with any other equimultiples of the four magnitudes, taken in the same manner.

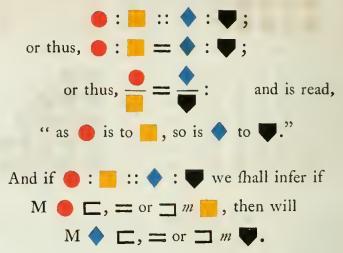
Euclid expresses this definition as follows:—

The first of four magnitudes is said to have the same ratio to the second, which the third has to the fourth, when any equimultiples whatsoever of the first and third being taken, and any equimultiples whatsoever of the second and fourth; if the multiple of the first be less than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also less than that of the fourth; or, it the multiple of the first be equal to that of the second, the multiple of the third is also equal to that of the fourth; or, ir the multiple of the first be greater than that of the second, the multiple of the third is also greater than that of the fourth.

In future we shall express this definition generally, thus:

If
$$M igoplus \Box$$
, $=$ or $\sqsupset m \buildrel m$, when $M igoplus \Box$, $=$ or $\sqsupset m \buildrel m$

Then we infer that •, the first, has the same ratio to •, the second, which •, the third, has to • the sourth: expressed in the succeeding demonstrations thus:



That is, if the first be to the second, as the third is to the fourth; then if M times the first be greater than, equal to, or less than m times the second, then shall M times the third be greater than, equal to, or less than m times the fourth, in which M and m are not to be considered particular multiples, but every pair of multiples whatever; nor are such marks as \bullet , \bullet , &c. to be considered any more than representatives of geometrical magnitudes.

The student should thoroughly understand this definition before proceeding further.



F the first of four magnitudes have the same ratio to the second, which the third has to the fourth, then any equimultiples whatever of the first and third shall have the same ratio to any equimultiples of

the second and fourth; viz., the equimultiple of the first shall have the same ratio to that of the second, which the equimultiple of the third has to that of the fourth.

Let : , then 3 : 2 : 3 : 2 , every equimultiple of 3 and 3 are equimultiples of and , and every equimultiple of 2 and 2 , are equimultiples of and (B. 5, pr. 3.)

The same reasoning holds good if any other equimultiple of the first and third be taken, any other equimultiple of the second and sourth.

... If the first four magnitudes, &c.



F one magnitude be the same multiple of another, which a magnitude taken from the first is of a magnitude taken from the other, the remainder shall be the same multiple of the remainder, that the whole is of the whole.

Let
$$\longrightarrow = M'$$

and $\longrightarrow = M'$

minus M'
 $\longrightarrow = M'$
 $\longrightarrow = M'$

and $\longrightarrow = M'$

.. If one magnitude, &c.



F two magnitudes be equimultiples of two others, and if equimultiples of these be taken from the sirst two, the remainders are either equal to these others, or equimultiples of them.

Let
$$\longrightarrow = M' : and \bigcirc \bigcirc = M' :$$
;

then $\longrightarrow minus m' : =$
 $M' : minus m' : = (M' minus m') :$,

and $\bigcirc \bigcirc minus m' : = M' : minus m' : =$
 $(M' : minus m') : =$

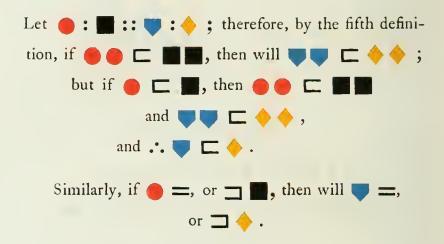
Hence, (M' minus m') and (M' minus m') are equimultiples of and A, and equal to and A, when M' minus m' = 1.

... If two magnitudes be equimultiples, &c.



F the first of the four magnitudes has the same ratio to the second which the third has to the fourth, then if the first be greater than the second, the third is also greater than the fourth; and if equal,

equal; if less, less.



.. If the first of four, &c.

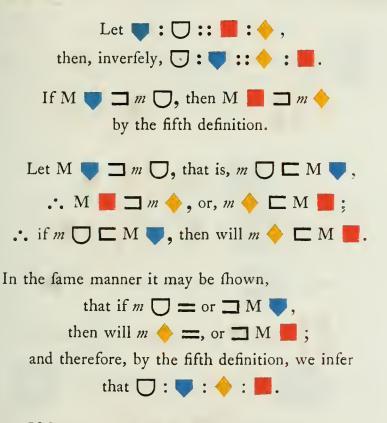
DEFINITION XIV.

GEOMETRICIANS make use of the technical term "Invertendo," by inversion, when there are four proportionals, and it is inferred, that the second is to the first as the fourth to the third.

Let A: B:: C:D, then, by "invertendo" it is inferred B: A:: D: C.



F four magnitudes are proportionals, they are proportionals also when taken inversely.



.. If four magnitudes, &c.



F the first be the same multiple of the second, or the same part of it, that the third is of the sourth; the first is to the second, as the third is to the sourth.

Let , the first, be the same multiple of , the second, that , the third, is of , the fourth. Then : :: : : take M \bullet , $m \bullet$, M \bullet , $m \bullet$; because is the same multiple of that is of (according to the hypothesis); and M is taken the fame multiple of that M is of , ... (according to the third proposition), M is the same multiple of

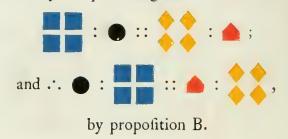
that M is of .

Therefore, if M be of a greater multiple than m is, then M is a greater multiple of ithan $m ext{ is; that is, if } M ext{ be greater than } m ext{ } \bullet$, then M will be greater than m in the fame mannerit can be shewn, if M be equal m, then M will be equal $m ext{ } e$ And, generally, if M \square , \square or \square mthen M \geqslant will be \square , = or \square $m \triangleq$; ... by the fifth definition, : • :: 💢 : 📤. Next, let

be the fame part of that **a** is of . In this case also •:•:•: For, because is the same part of that a is of ,



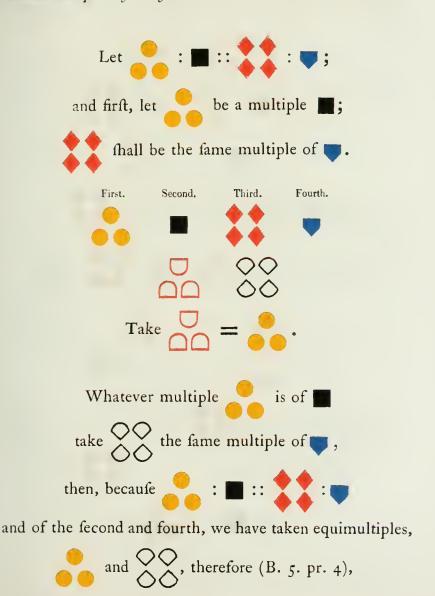
Therefore, by the preceding case,

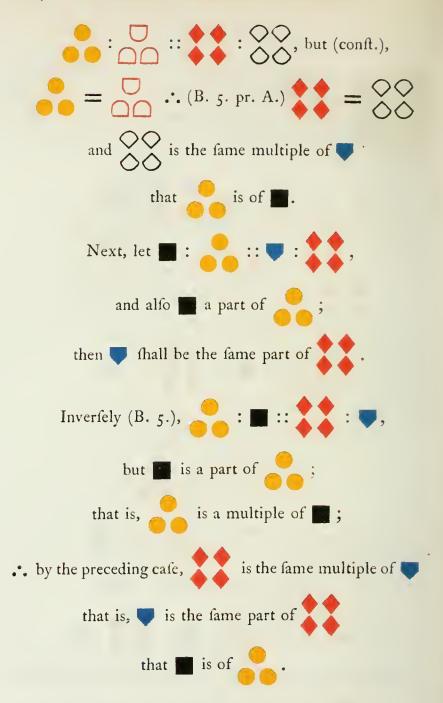


.. If the first be the same multiple, &c.



F the first be to the second as the third to the fourth, and if the first be a multiple, or a part of the second; the third is the same multiple, or the same part of the fourth.

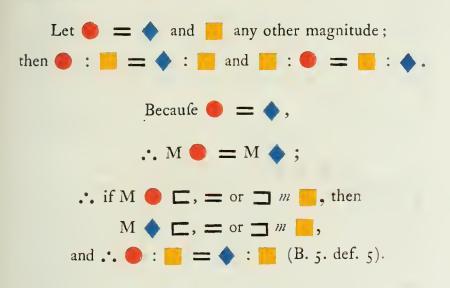




.. If the first be to the second, &c.



QUAL magnitudes have the same ratio to the same magnitude, and the same has the same ratio to equal magnitudes.



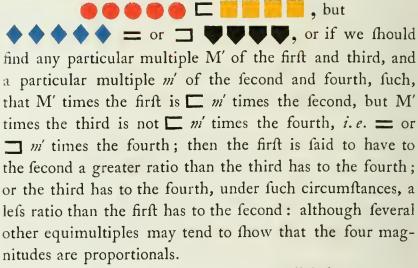
From the foregoing reasoning it is evident that,

.. Equal magnitudes, &c.

DEFINITION VII.

WHEN of the equimultiples of four magnitudes (taken as in the fifth definition), the multiple of the first is greater than that of the second, but the multiple of the third is not greater than the multiple of the fourth; then the first is said to have to the second a greater ratio than the third magnitude has to the fourth: and, on the contrary, the third is said to have to the fourth a less ratio than the first has to the second.

If, among the equimultiples of four magnitudes, compared as in the fifth definition, we should find



This definition will in future be expressed thus:—

If
$$M' = m' = m'$$
, but $M' = or = m' \Leftrightarrow$, then $= : = : \Leftrightarrow$.

In the above general expression, M' and m' are to be considered particular multiples, not like the multiples M

and m introduced in the fifth definition, which are in that definition confidered to be every pair of multiples that can be taken. It must also be here observed, that \bigcirc , \bigcirc , and the like symbols are to be confidered merely the representatives of geometrical magnitudes.

In a partial arithmetical way, this may be fet forth as follows:

Let us take the four numbers, 8, 7, 10, and 9.

First.	Second.	Third.	Fourth.
16 24 32 40 48 56 64 72 80 88 96 104 112 &cc.	14 21 28 35 42 49 56 63 70 77 84 91 98	20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140	18 27 36 45 54 63 72 81 90 108 117 126 &c.

Among the above multiples we find 16 \square 14 and 20 \square 18; that is, twice the first is greater than twice the second, and twice the third is greater than twice the fourth; and 16 \square 21 and 20 \square 27; that is, twice the first is less than three times the second, and twice the third is less than three times the fourth; and among the same multiples we can find 72 \square 56 and 90 \square 72: that is, 9 times the first is greater than 8 times the second, and 9 times the third is greater than 8 times the sourth. Many other equimul-

tiples might be selected, which would tend to show that the numbers 8, 7, 10, 9, were proportionals, but they are not, for we can find a multiple of the first a multiple of the fecond, but the fame multiple of the third that has been taken of the first not
the fame multiple of the fourth which has been taken of the fecond; for inflance, q times the first is _ 10 times the second, but 9 times the third is not _ 10 times the fourth, that is, 72 _ 70, but 90 not \square 90, or 8 times the first we find \square 9 times the fecond, but 8 times the third is not greater than 9 times the fourth, that is, $64 \square 63$, but 80 is not $\square 81$. When any fuch multiples as these can be found, the first (8) is faid to have to the fecond (7) a greater ratio than the third (10) has to the fourth (9), and on the contrary the third (10) is faid to have to the fourth (9) a less ratio than the first (8) has to the second (7).



F unequal magnitudes the greater has a greater ratio to the same than the less has: and the same magnitude has a greater ratio to the less than it has to the greater.

Let and be two unequal magnitudes, and any other.

We shall first prove that which is the greater of the two unequal magnitudes, has a greater ratio to than the less, has to ;

that is, $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$: $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$;

take $M' = m' \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$, and $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$;

fuch, that $M' = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M' = \mathbb{Z}$ fhall be each \mathbb{Z} $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$;

also take $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$ the least multiple of $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$,

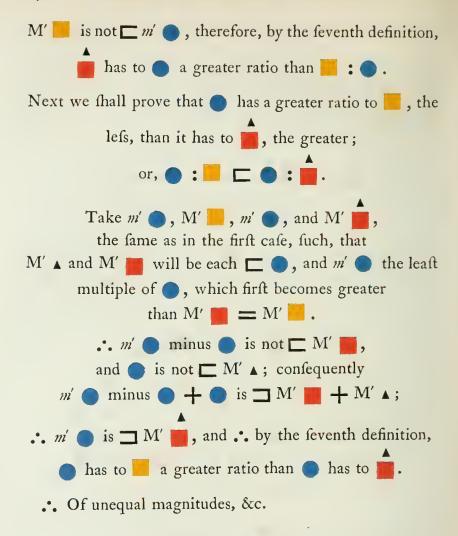
which will make $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$ $m' \in \mathbb{Z}$

M' is not m' ,

but M' is $\square m'$, for,

as m' is the first multiple which first becomes \square M', than (m' minus 1) or m' minus is not \square M', and is not \square M',

.. M' is \square m' \bigcirc ; but it has been shown above that



The contrivance employed in this proposition for finding among the multiples taken, as in the fifth definition, a multiple of the first greater than the multiple of the second, but the same multiple of the third which has been taken of the first, not greater than the same multiple of the fourth which has been taken of the second, may be illustrated numerically as follows:—

The number 9 has a greater ratio to 7 than 8 has to 7: that is, $9:7 \square^{8}:7$; or, $8+1:7 \square^{8}:7$.

The multiple of 1, which first becomes greater than 7, is 8 times, therefore we may multiply the first and third by 8, 9, 10, or any other greater number; in this case, let us multiply the first and third by 8, and we have 64 + 8 and 64: again, the first multiple of 7 which becomes greater than 64 is 10 times; then, by multiplying the second and sourth by 10, we shall have 70 and 70; then, arranging these multiples, we have—

Consequently 64 + 8, or 72, is greater than 70, but 64 is not greater than 70, ... by the seventh definition, 9 has a greater ratio to 7 than 8 has to 7.

The above is merely illustrative of the foregoing demonstration, for this property could be shown of these or other numbers very readily in the following manner; because, if an antecedent contains its consequent a greater number of times than another antecedent contains its consequent, or when a fraction is formed of an antecedent for the numerator, and its consequent for the denominator be greater than another fraction which is formed of another antecedent for the numerator and its consequent for the denominator, the ratio of the first antecedent to its consequent is greater than the ratio of the last antecedent to its consequent.

Thus, the number 9 has a greater ratio to 7, than 8 has to 7, for $\frac{9}{7}$ is greater than $\frac{8}{7}$.

Again, 17: 19 is a greater ratio than 13: 15, because $\frac{17}{19} = \frac{17 \times 15}{19 \times 15} = \frac{255}{285}$, and $\frac{13}{15} = \frac{13 \times 19}{15 \times 19} = \frac{247}{285}$, hence it is evident that $\frac{255}{285}$ is greater than $\frac{247}{285}$, $\therefore \frac{17}{19}$ is greater than

 $\frac{13}{15}$, and, according to what has been above shown, 17 has to 19 a greater ratio than 13 has to 15.

So that the general terms upon which a greater, equal, or less ratio exists are as follows:—

If $\frac{A}{B}$ be greater than $\frac{C}{D}$, A is faid to have to B a greater ratio than C has to D; if $\frac{A}{B}$ be equal to $\frac{C}{D}$, then A has to B the fame ratio which C has to D; and if $\frac{A}{B}$ be less than $\frac{C}{D}$, A is faid to have to B a less ratio than C has to D.

The student should understand all up to this proposition perfectly before proceeding further, in order fully to comprehend the following propositions of this book. We therefore strongly recommend the learner to commence again, and read up to this slowly, and carefully reason at each step, as he proceeds, particularly guarding against the mischievous system of depending wholly on the memory. By following these instructions, he will find that the parts which usually present considerable difficulties will present no difficulties whatever, in prosecuting the study of this important book.



AGNITUDES which have the same ratio to the same magnitude are equal to one another; and those to which the same magnitude has the same ratio are equal to one another.

∴ **♦** is not **□ ●**.

In the same manner it may be shown, that

is not \square \diamondsuit ,

 $\therefore \blacklozenge = \bigcirc$.

... Magnitudes which have the same ratio, &c.

This may be shown otherwise, as follows:—

Let A : B = A : C, then B = C, for, as the fraction $\frac{A}{B}$ = the fraction $\frac{A}{C}$, and the numerator of one equal to the numerator of the other, therefore the denominator of these fractions are equal, that is B = C.

Again, if B : A = C : A, B = C. For, as $\frac{B}{A} = \frac{C}{A}$, B must = C.

HAT magnitude which has a greater ratio than another has unto the same magnitude, is the greater of the two: and that magnitude to which the same has a greater ratio than it has unto another mag-

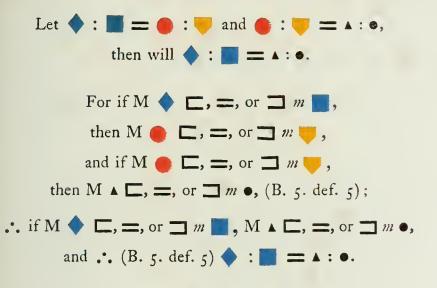
nitude, is the less of the two.

```
Let : [ ], then [ ]
      For if not, let \blacksquare or \blacksquare ;
  then, : (B. 5. pr. 7) or
     (B. 5. pr. 8) and (invert.),
  which is abfurd according to the hypothesis.
      : is not = or \square and
         then, | | | | | | | |.
    For if not, 
must be 
or = ,
       ■ □ : ■ (B. 5. pr. 8) and (invert.);
🧧 : 🌰 💳 🧾 : 👅 (B. 5. pr. 7), which is abfurd (hyp.);
        .. 
is not 
or = ,
        and .. e must be 🛄 🐷.
```

... That magnitude which has, &c.



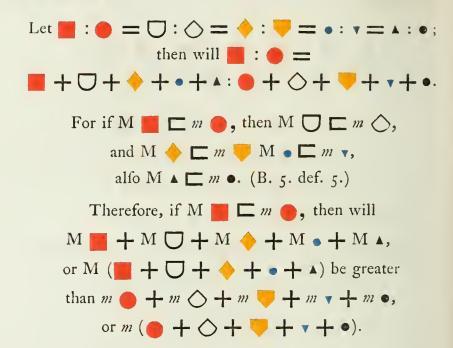
ATIOS that are the same to the same ratio, are the same to each other.



.. Ratios that are the fame, &c.



F any number of magnitudes be proportionals, as one of the antecedents is to its confequent, so shall all the antecedents taken together be to all the confequents.



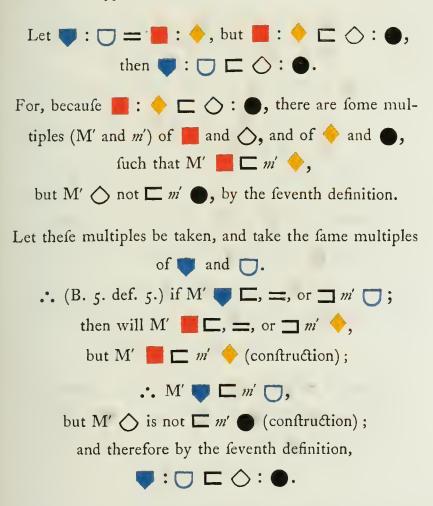
In the same way it may be shown, if M times one of the antecedents be equal to or less than m times one of the consequents, M times all the antecedents taken together, will be equal to or less than m times all the consequents taken together. Therefore, by the fifth definition, as one of the antecedents is to its consequent, so are all the antecedents taken together to all the consequents taken together.

.. If any number of magnitudes, &c.



F the first has to the second the same ratio which the third has to the fourth, but the third to the fourth a greater ratio than the fifth has to the sixth; the first shall also have to the second a greater

ratio than the fifth to the fixth.



... If the first has to the second, &c.



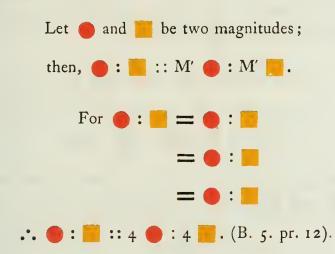
F the first has the same ratio to the second which the third has to the sourth; then, if the first be greater than the third, the second shall be greater than the fourth; and if equal, equal; and if less, less.

```
Let : and first suppose
          then will \( \bigcup \subseteq \ldots.
For \blacksquare: \square (B. 5. pr. 8), and by the
       hypothesis, \blacksquare : \bigcirc = \blacksquare : \spadesuit;
   ∴ : ♦ □ : □ (B. 5. pr. 13),
  ∴ • □ □ (B. 5. pr. 10.), or □ □ •.
 Secondly, let = = , then will = =
    For \blacksquare : \bigcirc = \blacksquare : \bigcirc (B. 5. pr. 7),
       and \blacksquare: \bigcirc = \blacksquare: \spadesuit (hyp.);
    ∴ | : □ = | : • (B. 5. pr. 11),
        and .. \Box = \spadesuit (B. 5, pr. 9).
 because \square and \square: \diamondsuit \square \square;
        that is, \Box \Rightarrow .
```

.. If the first has the same ratio, &c.



AGNITUDES have the same ratio to one another which their equimultiples have.



And as the fame reasoning is generally applicable, we have

$$\bullet$$
: $M' \bullet$: $M' = .$

... Magnitudes have the same ratio, &c.

DEFINITION XIII.

THE technical term permutando, or alternando, by permutation or alternately, is used when there are four proportionals, and it is inferred that the first has the same ratio to the third which the second has to the fourth; or that the first is to the third as the second is to the fourth: as is shown in the following proposition:—

Let : • :: • : •,

by "permutando" or "alternando" it is

inferred : • : • : •.

It may be necessary here to remark that the magnitudes , , , , , must be homogeneous, that is, of the same nature or similitude of kind; we must therefore, in such cases, compare lines with lines, surfaces with surfaces, solids with solids, &c. Hence the student will readily perceive that a line and a surface, a surface and a solid, or other heterogenous magnitudes, can never stand in the relation of antecedent and consequent.



F four magnitudes of the same kind be proportionals, they are also proportionals when taken alternately.

```
Let : □ :: □ : ♠, then □ : □ :: □ : ♠.

For M □ : M □ :: □ : □ (B. 5. pr. 15),

and M □ : M □ :: □ : ♠ (hyp.) and (B. 5. pr. 11);

also m □ : m ♠ :: □ : ♠ (B. 5. pr. 15);

∴ M □ : M □ :: m □ : m ♠ (B. 5. pr. 14),

and ∴ if M □ □, =, or □ m ♠ (B. 5. pr. 14);

therefore, by the fifth definition,

therefore, by the fifth definition,

: □ : ♠.
```

... If four magnitudes of the same kind, &c.

DEFINITION XVI.

DIVIDENDO, by division, when there are four proportionals, and it is inferred, that the excess of the first above the second is to the second, as the excess of the third above the fourth, is to the fourth.

Let A : B :: C : D;

by "dividendo" it is inferred

A minus B: B:: C minus D: D.

According to the above, A is supposed to be greater than B, and C greater than D; if this be not the case, but to have B greater than A, and D greater than C, B and D can be made to stand as antecedents, and A and C as consequents, by "invertion"

B : A :: D : C;

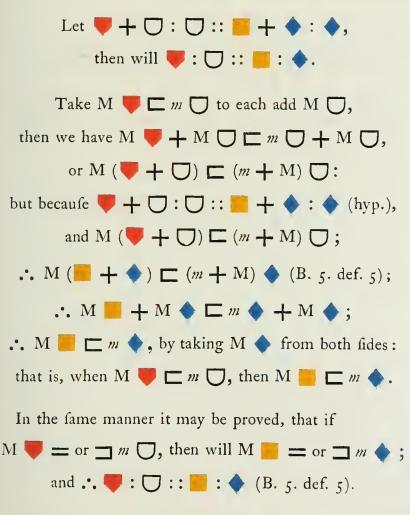
then, by "dividendo," we infer

B minus A: A:: D minus C: C.



F magnitudes, taken jointly, be proportionals, they shall also be proportionals when taken separately: that is, if two magnitudes together have to one of them the same ratio which two others have to one

of these, the remaining one of the first two shall have to the other the same ratio which the remaining one of the last two has to the other of these.



.. If magnitudes taken jointly, &c.

DEFINITION XV.

THE term componendo, by composition, is used when there are four proportionals; and it is inferred that the first together with the second is to the second as the third together with the fourth is to the fourth.

Let A: B:: (:D;

then, by the term "componendo," it is inferred that

A + B : B :: C + D : D.

By "invertion" B and D may become the first and third, A and C the second and fourth, as

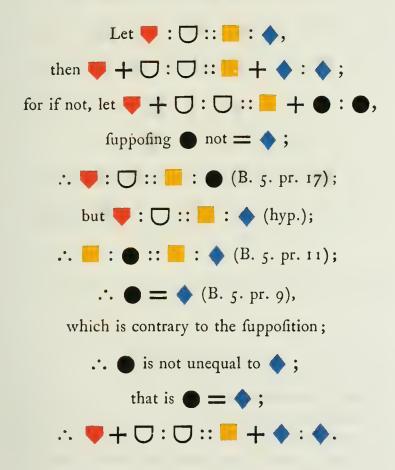
B:A::D:C,

then, by "componendo," we infer that

B + A : A :: D + C : C

F magnitudes, taken separately, be proportionals, they shall also be proportionals when taken jointly: that is, if the first be to the second as the third is to the fourth, the sirst and second together shall be

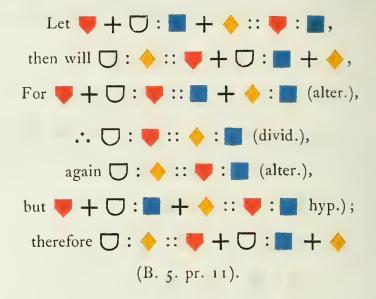
to the second as the third and fourth together is to the fourth.



.. If magnitudes, taken separately, &c.



F a whole magnitude be to a whole, as a magnitude taken from the first, is to a magnitude taken from the other; the remainder shall be to the remainder, as the whole to the whole.



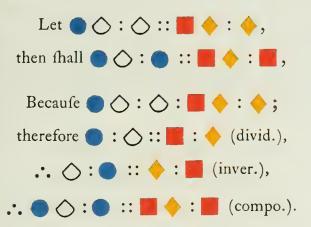
... If a whole magnitude be to a whole, &c.

DEFINITION XVII.

THE term "convertendo," by conversion, is made use of by geometricians, when there are four proportionals, and it is inferred, that the first is to its excess above the second, as the third is to its excess above the fourth. See the following proposition:—



F four magnitudes be proportionals, they are also proportionals by conversion: that is, the first is to its excess above the second, as the third to its excess above the fourth.



... If four magnitudes, &c.

DEFINITION XVIII.

"Ex æquali" (sc. distantia), or ex æquo, from equality of distance: when there is any number of magnitudes more than two, and as many others, such that they are proportionals when taken two and two of each rank, and it is inferred that the first is to the last of the first rank of magnitudes, as the first is to the last of the others: "of this there are the two following kinds, which arise from the different order in which the magnitudes are taken, two and two."

DEFINITION XIX.

"Ex æquali," from equality. This term is used simply by itself, when the first magnitude is to the second of the first rank, as the first to the second of the other rank; and as the second is to the third of the first rank, so is the second to the third of the other; and so on in order: and the inference is as mentioned in the preceding definition; whence this is called ordinate proportion. It is demonstrated in Book 5. pr. 22.

```
Thus, if there be two ranks of magnitudes,

A, B, C, D, E, F, the first rank,

and L, M, N, O, P, Q, the second,

such that A: B:: L: M, B: C:: M: N,

C: D:: N: O, D: E:: O: P, E: F:: P: Q;

we infer by the term "ex æquali" that

A: F:: L: Q.
```

DEFINITION XX.

"Ex æquali in proportione perturbata feu inordinata," from equality in perturbate, or disorderly proportion. This term is used when the first magnitude is to the second of the first rank as the last but one is to the last of the second rank; and as the second is to the third of the first rank, so is the last but two to the last but one of the second rank; and as the third is to the fourth of the first rank, so is the third from the last to the last but two of the second rank; and so on in a cross order: and the inference is in the 18th definition. It is demonstrated in B. 5. pr. 23.

```
Thus, if there be two ranks of magnitudes,

A, B, C, D, E, F, the first rank,

and L, M, N, O, P, Q, the second,

such that A:B::P:Q, B:C::O:P,

C:D::N:O, D:E::M:N, E:F::L:M;
```

the term "ex æquali in proportione perturbatâ seu inordinatâ" infers that

A: F:: L: Q.



F there be three magnitudes, and other three, which, taken two and two, have the same ratio; then, if the first be greater than the third, the fourth shall be greater than the fixth; and if equal, equal; and if lefs, lefs.

```
Let , , , be the first three magnitudes,
           and \blacklozenge, \circlearrowleft, \bullet, be the other three,
fuch that \bigvee : \bigcirc :: \diamondsuit : \diamondsuit, and \bigcirc := :: \diamondsuit : \diamondsuit.
  or \square \bigcirc.
```

From the hypothesis, by alternando, we have

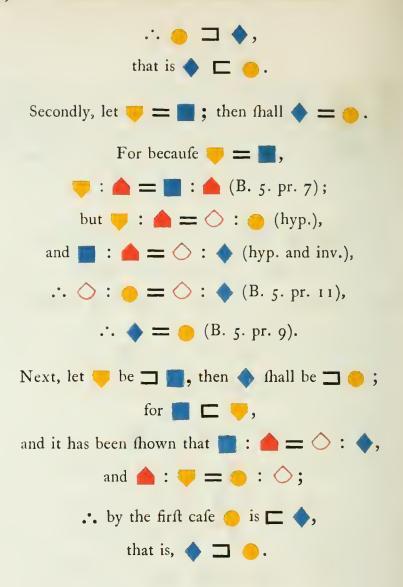
.. If there be three magnitudes, &c.



F there be three magnitudes, and other three which have the same ratio, taken two and two, but in a cross order; then if the first magnitude be greater than the third, the fourth shall be greater than the

fixth; and if equal, equal; and if less, less.

```
Let , , be the first three magnitudes,
          and \blacklozenge, \circlearrowright, \bullet, the other three,
fuch that 🧡: 🛕 :: 🔷 : 👝, and 📤 : 🔃 :: 🔷 : 🔷.
         Then, if \Box, =, or \Box \blacksquare, then
               will ♦ □, =, □ ●.
               First, let | be |
       then, because is any other magnitude,
          □ : ♠ □ ■ : ♠ (B. 5. pr. 8);
           but (): (hyp.);
        ∴ ♦ : • □ : • (B. 5. pr. 13);
       and because (hyp.);
            \therefore \blacksquare : \triangle :: \triangle : \triangle (inv.),
    and it was shown that 🔷 : 🦲 🗀 : 📤,
       ∴ ♦ : • □ □ ♦ (B. 5, pr. 13);
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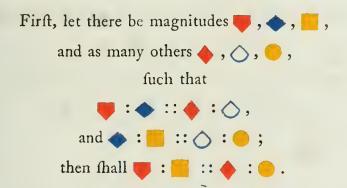


.. If there be three, &c.

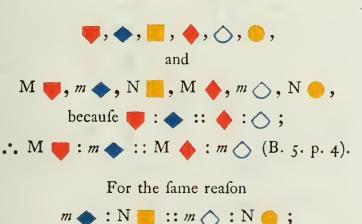


F there be any number of magnitudes, and as many others, which, taken two and two in order, have the same ratio; the first shall have to the last of the first magnitudes the same ratio which the first of the others has to the last of the same.

N.B .- This is ufually cited by the words "ex æquali," or "ex æquo."



Let these magnitudes, as well as any equimultiples whatever of the antecedents and confequents of the ratios, stand as follows:-



and because there are three magnitudes,

 $M \longrightarrow , m \longrightarrow , N \longrightarrow ,$ and other three, $M \blacklozenge , m \circlearrowleft , N \bigcirc ,$ which, taken two and two, have the fame ratio; \therefore if M \bigcirc \square , \Longrightarrow , or \square N then will $M \spadesuit \square$, \square , or \square $N \bigcirc$, by (B. 5. pr. 20); and (def. 5). Next, let there be four magnitudes, , , , , and other four, \bigcirc , \bigcirc , $\stackrel{\square}{=}$, \wedge which, taken two and two, have the fame ratio, that is to fay, 😈: 🔷:: 🛆: 📵, ♠: □: ●: □, and : .: = : ... then shall : • :: (): ...; for, because , , , are three magnitudes, and \bigcirc , \bigcirc , , other three, which, taken two and two, have the same ratio; therefore, by the foregoing case, :: (): : !..., but : .: . : . ;

and so on, whatever the number of magnitudes be.

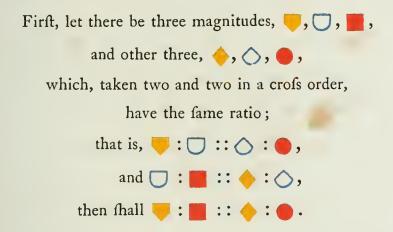
.. If there be any number, &c.



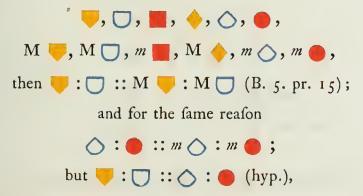
F there be any number of magnitudes, and as many others, which, taken two and two in a cross order, have the same ratio; the sirst shall have to the last of the sirst magnitudes the same ratio which the

first of the others has to the last of the same.

N.B.—This is usually cited by the words "ex æquali in proportione perturbatâ;" or "ex æquo perturbato."



Let these magnitudes and their respective equimultiples be arranged as follows:—



BOOK V. PROP. XXIII. THEOR. 196 .. M = : M = :: (B. 5. pr. 11); and because \bigcirc : \bigcirc : \bigcirc (hyp.), $M \bigcirc m = :: \land : m \bigcirc (B. 5. pr. 4);$ then, because there are three magnitudes, M = M = m = mand other three, $M \Leftrightarrow, m \diamondsuit, m =$, which, taken two and two in a cross order, have the same ratio; therefore, if $M = \square$, =, or $\supseteq m = \square$, then will M \Diamond \square , \Longrightarrow , or \Longrightarrow $m \bigoplus$ (B. 5. pr. 21), and : (B. 5. def. 5). Next, let there be four magnitudes, \bigcirc , \bigcirc , \bigcirc , and other four, O, , , , which, when taken two and two in a cross order, have the fame ratio; namely, : □ :: ■ : ▲, **:: (): : , !** : • :: • : • , then shall $\overline{}$: \diamond : \diamond : \diamond . For, because , , , are three magnitudes,

and , , other three,

which, taken two and two in a cross order, have the same ratio,

therefore, by the first case, -: =:: .. ,

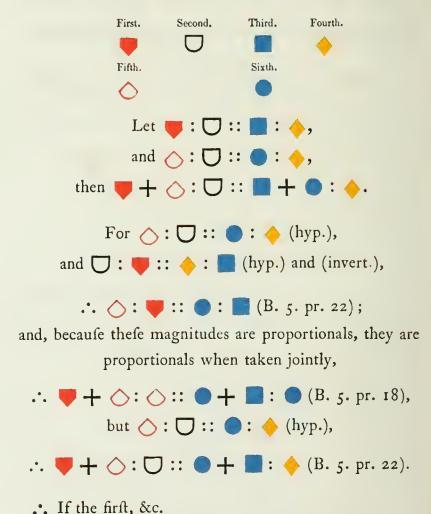
but **:** ↔ :: ♦ : •,

and so on, whatever be the number of such magnitudes.

.. If there be any number, &c.

F the first has to the second the same ratio which the third has to the fourth, and the fifth to the second the same which the sixth has to the fourth, the first and fifth together shall have to the second

the same ratio which the third and fixth together have to the fourth.





F four magnitudes of the same kind are proportionals, the greatest and least of them together are greater than the other two together.

Let four magnitudes, $\blacksquare + \bigcirc$, $\blacksquare + \diamond$, \bigcirc , and \diamond , of the same kind, be proportionals, that is to say, ➡ + □ : ■ + ♦ :: □ : ♦, and let + D be the greatest of the four, and consequently by pr. A and 14 of Book 5, $\stackrel{\bullet}{\bullet}$ is the least; then will $\blacksquare + \bigcirc + \diamond$ be $\square = + \diamond + \bigcirc$; because $\blacksquare + \bigcirc : \blacksquare + \diamond :: \bigcirc : \diamond$, **II** :: **II** + 🗍 : 🔣 + 🔶 (B. 5. pr. 19), but $\blacksquare + \bigcirc \square = + \diamond$ (hyp.), .. **(B.** 5. pr. A); to each of these add \(\bar{\cup} + \leftharpoonright, ∴ ■ + □ + ♦ □ ■ + □ + ♦.

.. If four magnitudes, &c.

DEFINITION X.

WHEN three magnitudes are proportionals, the first is said to have to the third the duplicate ratio of that which it has to the second.

For example, if A, B, C, be continued proportionals, that is, A : B :: B : C, A is faid to have to C the duplicate ratio of A : B;

or
$$\frac{A}{C}$$
 = the square of $\frac{A}{C}$.

This property will be more readily seen of the quantities

$$ar^2$$
, r , a , for $ar^2 : ar : ar : a$;
and $\frac{ar^2}{a} = r^2 =$ the fquare of $\frac{ar^2}{ar} = r$,
or of a , ir , ar^2 ;

for
$$\frac{a}{a r^4} = \frac{1}{r^2}$$
 = the square of $\frac{a}{a r} = \frac{1}{r}$.

DEFINITION XI.

WHEN four magnitudes are continual proportionals, the first is said to have to the fourth the triplicate ratio of that which it has to the second; and so on, quadruplicate, &c. increasing the denomination still by unity, in any number of proportionals.

For example, let A, B, C, D, be four continued proportionals, that is, A : B :: B : C :: C : D; A is faid to have to D, the triplicate ratio of A to B;

or
$$\frac{A}{D}$$
 = the cube of $\frac{A}{B}$.

This definition will be better understood, and applied to a greater number of magnitudes than four that are continued proportionals, as follows:—

Let ar^3 , ar^3 , ar, a, be four magnitudes in continued proportion, that is, $ar^3 : ar^2 :: ar^3 : ar :: ar : a$,

then $\frac{ar^3}{a} = r^3 =$ the cube of $\frac{ar^3}{ar^2} = r$.

Or, let ar^5 , ar^4 , ar^3 , ar^2 , ar, a, be fix magnitudes in proportion, that is

 $ar^5: ar^4:: ar^4 \cdot ar^5:: ar^3: ar^2:: ar^3: ar:: ar:: a,$ then the ratio $\frac{ar^5}{a} = r^5 =$ the fifth power of $\frac{ar^5}{ar^4} = r$.

Or, let a, ar, ar^2 , ar^3 , ar^4 , be five magnitudes in continued proportion; then $\frac{a}{ar^4} = \frac{1}{r^4}$ = the fourth power of $\frac{a}{ar} = \frac{1}{r}$.

DEFINITION A.

To know a compound ratio:-

When there are any number of magnitudes of the same kind, the first is said to have to the last of them the ratio compounded of the ratio which the first has to the second, and of the ratio which the second has to the third, and of the ratio which the third has to the fourth; and so on, unto the last magnitude.

For example, if A, B, C, D, be four magnitudes of the same kind, the first A is said to have to the last D the ratio compounded of the ratio of A to B, and of the

ABCD EFGHKL MN

ratio of B to C, and of the ratio of C to D; or, the ratio of

A to D is faid to be compounded of the ratios of A to B, B to C, and C to D.

And if A has to B the same ratio which E has to F, and B to C the same ratio that G has to H, and C to D the same that K has to L; then by this definition, A is said to have to D the ratio compounded of ratios which are the same with the ratios of E to F, G to H, and K to L. And the same thing is to be understood when it is more briefly expressed by saying, A has to D the ratio compounded of the ratios of E to F, G to H, and K to L.

In like manner, the same things being supposed; if M has to N the same ratio which A has to D, then for shortness sake, M is said to have to N the ratio compounded of the ratios of E to F, G to H, and K to L.

This definition may be better understood from an arithmetical or algebraical illustration; for, in fact, a ratio compounded of several other ratios, is nothing more than a ratio which has for its antecedent the continued product of all the antecedents of the ratios compounded, and for its consequent the continued product of all the consequents of the ratios compounded.

Thus, the ratio compounded of the ratios of 2:3, 4:7, 6:11, 2:5, is the ratio of $2 \times 4 \times 6 \times 2:3 \times 7 \times 11 \times 5$, or the ratio of 96:1155, or 32:385.

And of the magnitudes A, B, C, D, E, F, of the same kind, A: F is the ratio compounded of the ratios of

A:B, B:C, C:D, D:E, E:F; for A × B × C × D × E:B × C × D × E × F, or $\frac{A \times B \times C \times D \times E}{E \times C \times D \times E \times F} = \frac{A}{F}$, or the ratio of A:F.



ATIOS which are compounded of the same ratios are the same to one another.

Then the ratio which is compounded of the ratios of A:B, B:C, C:D, D:E, or the ratio of A:E, is the fame as the ratio compounded of the ratios of F:C, G:H, H:K, K:L, or the ratio of F:L.

For
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{F}{G}$$
,
$$\frac{B}{C} = \frac{G}{H}$$
,
$$\frac{C}{D} = \frac{H}{K}$$
,
and $\frac{D}{E} = \frac{K}{L}$;
$$\therefore \frac{A \times B \times C \times D}{B \times C \times D \times E} = \frac{F \times G \times H \times K}{G \times H \times K \times L}$$
,
and $\therefore \frac{A}{E} = \frac{F}{L}$,

or the ratio of A: E is the same as the ratio of F: L.

The fame may be demonstrated of any number of ratios fo circumstanced.

```
Next, let A:B::K:L,
B:C::H:K,
C:D::G:H,
D:E::F:G.
```

Then the ratio which is compounded of the ratios of A:B, B:(, C:D, D:E, or the ratio of A:E, is the fame as the ratio compounded of the ratios of L:L, H:L, (::H, F:(), or the ratio of F:L.

For
$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{k}{L}$$
,
$$\frac{B}{C} = \frac{H}{k}$$
,
$$\frac{C}{D} = \frac{G}{H}$$
,
and $\frac{D}{E} = \frac{F}{G}$;
$$\frac{A \times B \times C \times D}{B \times C \times D \times E} = \frac{k \times H \times G \times F}{L \times K \times H \times G}$$
,
and $\frac{A}{E} = \frac{F}{L}$,

or the ratio of A: E is the same as the ratio of F: L.

... Ratios which are compounded, &c.



F several ratios be the same to several ratios, each to each, the ratio which is compounded of ratios which are the same to the first ratios, each to each, shall be the same to the ratio compounded of ratios

which are the same to the other ratios, each to each.

```
ABCDEFGH PQRST
abcdefgh VWXY/
```

If
$$A:B::a:b$$
 and $A:B::P:Q$ $a:b::V:W$

$$C:D::c:d$$

$$E:F::e:f$$

$$E:F::R:S$$

$$G:H::S:T$$

$$g:h:Y:Z$$
then $P:T = V:Z$.

For
$$\frac{P}{Q} = \frac{A}{B} = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{V}{W}$$
,
 $\frac{Q}{R} = \frac{C}{D} = \frac{c}{d} = \frac{W}{X}$,
 $\frac{R}{S} = \frac{E}{F} = \frac{e}{f} = \frac{X}{Y}$,
 $\frac{S}{T} = \frac{G}{H} = \frac{g}{h} = \frac{Y}{Y}$;

and
$$\therefore \frac{P \times Q \times R \times S}{Q \times R \times S \times T} = \frac{V \times W \times V \times Y}{W \times X \times Y \times Z}$$
,
and $\therefore \frac{P}{T} = \frac{V}{7}$,
or $P: T = V: Z$.

.. If several ratios, &c.



F a ratio which is compounded of several ratios be the same to a ratio which is compounded of several other ratios; and if one of the first ratios, or the ratio which is compounded of several of them, be

the same to one of the last ratios, or to the ratio which is compounded of several of them; then the remaining ratio of the first, or, if there be more than one, the ratio compounded of the remaining ratios, shall be the same to the remaining ratio of the last, or, if there be more than one, to the ratio compounded of these remaining ratios.

ABCDEFGH PQRSTX

Let A:B, B:C, C:D, D:E, E:F, F:G, G:H, be the first ratios, and P:Q, Q:R, R:S, S:T, T:X, the other ratios; also, let A:H, which is compounded of the first ratios, be the same as the ratio of P:X, which is the ratio compounded of the other ratios; and, let the ratio of A:E, which is compounded of the ratios of A:B, B:C, C:D, D:E, be the same as the ratio of P:R, which is compounded of the ratios P:Q, Q:R.

Then the ratio which is compounded of the remaining first ratios, that is, the ratio compounded of the ratios E:F, F:G, G:H, that is, the ratio of E:H, shall be the same as the ratio of R:X, which is compounded of the ratios of R:S, S:T, T:X, the remaining other ratios.

Because
$$\frac{A \times B \times C \times D \times E \times F \times G}{B \times C \times D \times E \times F \times G \times H} = \frac{P \times Q \times R \times S \times T}{Q \times R \times S \times T \times X}$$

or
$$\frac{A \times B \times C \times D}{B \times C \times D \times E} \times \frac{E \times F \times G}{F \times G \times H} = \frac{P \times Q}{Q \times R} \times \frac{R \times S \times T}{S \times T \times X}$$

and
$$\frac{A \times B \times C \times D}{B \times C \times D \times E} = \frac{P \times Q}{Q \times R}$$
,

$$\therefore \frac{\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G}}{\mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{G} \times \mathbf{H}} = \frac{\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{I}}{\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{X}},$$

$$\therefore \frac{E}{H} = \frac{R}{X},$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot E : H = R : X.$$

.. If a ratio which, &c.



F there be any number of ratios, and any number of other ratios, fuch that the ratio which is compounded of ratios, which are the same to the first ratios, each to each, is the same to the ratio which

is compounded of ratios, which are the same, each to each, to the last ratios—and if one of the first ratios, or the ratio which is compounded of ratios, which are the same to several of the first ratios, each to each, be the same to one of the last ratios, or to the ratio which is compounded of ratios, which are the same, each to each, to several of the last ratios—then the remaining ratio of the first; or, if there be more than one, the ratio which is compounded of ratios, which are the same to the remaining ratio of the last; or, if there be more than one, to the ratio which is compounded of ratios, which are the same, each to each, to these remaining ratios.

```
h km n s

AB, CD, EF, GH, KL, MN, abcdefg

OP, QR, ST, VW, XY, hklmnp

abcd efg
```

Let A:B, C:D, E:F, G:H, K:L, M:N, be the first ratios, and O:P, Q:R, S:T, V:W, X:Y, the other ratios;

```
and let A : B = a : b,

C : D = b : c,

E : F = c : d,

G : H = d : e,

K : L = e : f,

M : N = f : g.
```

Then, by the definition of a compound ratio, the ratio of a:g is compounded of the ratios of a:b, b:c, c:d, d:e, e:f, f:g, which are the same as the ratio of A:B, C:D, E:F, G:H, K:L, M:N, each to each.

Alfo,
$$O : P = h : k$$
,
 $Q : R = k : l$,
 $S : T = l : m$,
 $V : W = m : n$,
 $X : Y = n : p$.

Then will the ratio of h:p be the ratio compounded of the ratios of h:k, k:l, l:m, m:n, n:p, which are the fame as the ratios of O:P, Q:R, S:T, V:W, X:Y, each to each.

•• by the hypothesis
$$\alpha : g = h : p$$
.

Also, let the ratio which is compounded of the ratios of A:B, C:D, two of the first ratios (or the ratios of a:c, for A:B = a:b, and C:D = b:c), be the same as the ratio of a:d, which is compounded of the ratios of a:b, b:c, c:d, which are the same as the ratios of O:P, O:R, O:R

And let the ratios of h:s, which is compounded of the ratios of h:k, k:m, m:n, n:s, which are the same as the remaining first ratios, namely, E:F, G:H, K:L, M:N; also, let the ratio of e:g, be that which is compounded of the ratios e:f, f:g, which are the same, each to each, to the remaining other ratios, namely, V:W, X:Y. Then the ratio of h:s shall be the same as the ratio of e:g; or h:s = e:g.

For
$$\frac{A \times C \times E \times G \times K \times M}{B \times D \times F \times H \times L \times N} = \frac{a \times b \times c \times d \times e \times f}{b \times c \times d \times e \times f \times g}$$
,

and
$$\frac{O \times Q \times S \times V \times X}{P \times R \times I \times W \times Y} = \frac{h \times k \times l \times m \times n}{k \times l \times m \times n \times p},$$

by the composition of the ratios;

$$\stackrel{\bullet}{\cdot} \frac{h \times k \times m \times n}{k \times m \times n \times s} = \frac{e f}{f g},$$

$$\therefore \frac{h}{s} = \frac{e}{g},$$

$$\cdot$$
 h:s = e:g.

... If there be any number, &c.

^{* *} Algebraical and Arithmetical expositions of the Fifth Book of Euclid are given in Byrne's Doctrine of Proportion; published by WILLIAMS and Co. London. 1841.



BOOK VI.

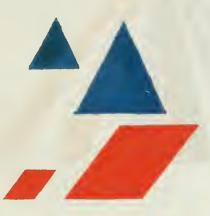
DEFINITIONS.

I.



ECTILINEAR figures are faid to be fimilar, when they have their se-

veral angles equal, each to each, and the sides about the equal angles proportional.



II.

Two sides of one figure are said to be reciprocally proportional to two sides of another figure when one of the sides of the first is to the second, as the remaining side of the second is to the remaining side of the first.

III.

A STRAIGHT line is faid to be cut in extreme and mean ratio, when the whole is to the greater fegment, as the greater fegment is to the lefs.

IV.

THE altitude of any figure is the straight line drawn from its vertex perpendicular to its base, or the base produced.





RIANGLES and parallelograms having the same altitude are

to one another as their bases.

Let the triangles have a common vertex, and their bases — and —

in the fame straight line.

Produce _____ both ways, take fucceffively on produced lines equal to it; and on produced lines successively equal to it; and draw lines from the common vertex to their extremities.

thus formed are all equal The triangles to one another, fince their bases are equal. (B. 1. pr. 38.)

and its base are respectively equi-

In like manner

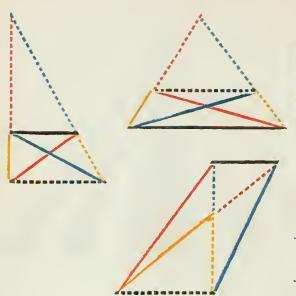
and its base are respec-

tively equimultiples of and the base

then m or 6 times \square or \square n or 5 times \square , m and n stand for every multiple taken as in the fifth definition of the Fifth Book. Although we have only shown that this property exists when m equal 6, and nequal 5, yet it is evident that the property holds good for every multiple value that may be given to m, and to n.

Parallelograms having the same altitude are the doubles of the triangles, on their bases, and are proportional to them (Part 1), and hence their doubles, the parallelograms, are as their bases. (B. 5. pr. 15.)

Q. E. D.





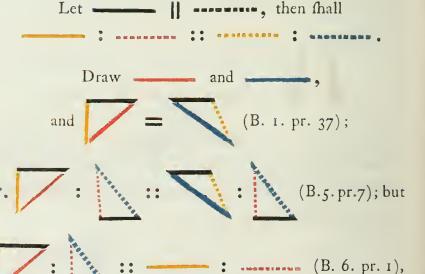
F a straight line

be drawn parallel to any
side

angle, it shall cut the other

hides, or those sides produced, into proportional segments.

And if any straight line divide the sides of a triangle, or those sides produced, into proportional segments, it is parallel to the remaining side



(B. 5. pr. 11).

PART I.

PART II.

then _______.

Let the same construction remain,

but : (hyp.),

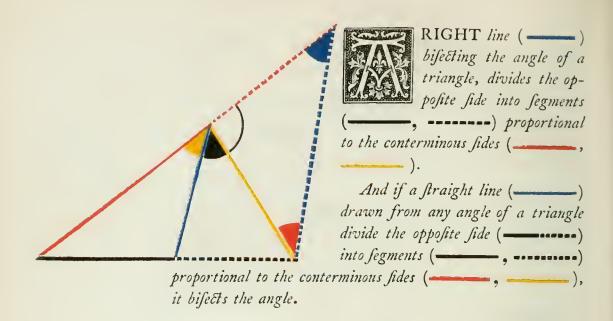
: (B. 5. pr. 11.)

(B. 5. pr. 9);

but they are on the same base _____, and at the same side of it, and

(B. 1. pr. 39).

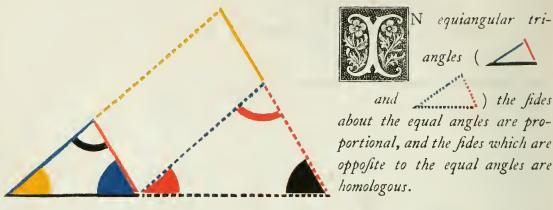
Q. E. D.



PART II.

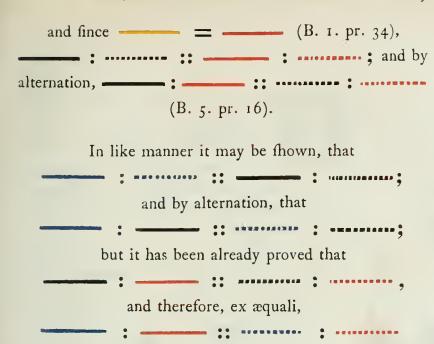
Let the same construction remain, and (B. 6. pr. 2); (hyp.) ----(B. 5. pr. 11). and .: (B. 5. pr. 9), and .. (B. 1. pr. 5); but fince _____ ||; **\(\)** = **\(\)**, and (B. 1. pr. 29); \therefore \checkmark = \checkmark , and \checkmark = \checkmark . bifects |

Q. E. D.



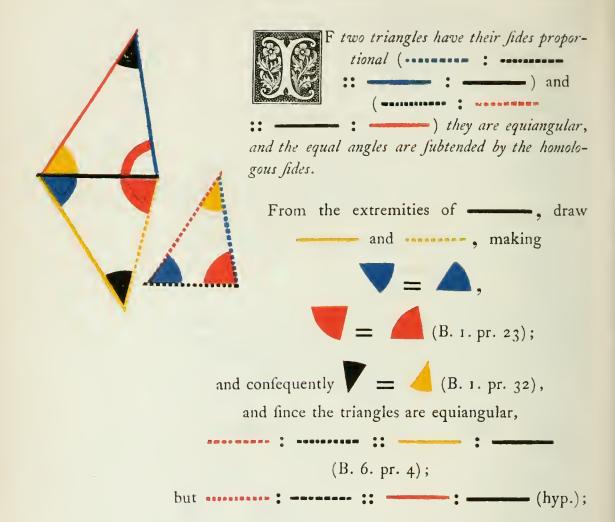
opposite to the equal angles are Let the equiangular triangles be fo placed that two fides ---- opposite to equal angles may be conterminous, and in the same straight line; and that the triangles lying at the same side of that straight line, may have the equal angles not conterminous, i. e. opposite to and Draw and Then, because (B.1. pr. 28); is a parallelogram. But .

(B. 6. pr. 2);



therefore the fides about the equal angles are proportional, and those which are opposite to the equal angles are homologous.

(B. 5. pr. 22),

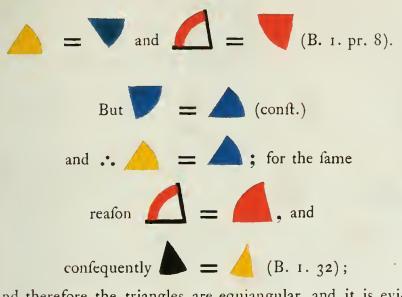


and confequently -

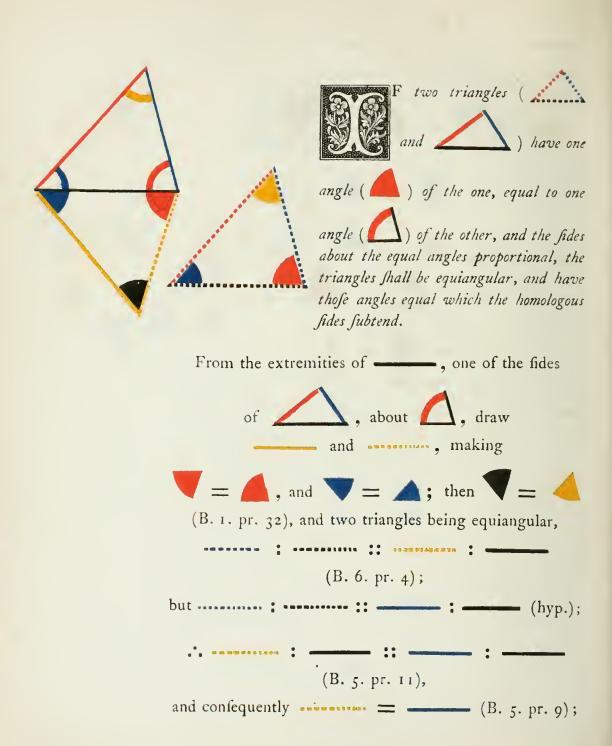
In the like manner it may be shown that

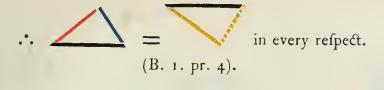
—— (B. 5. pr. 9).

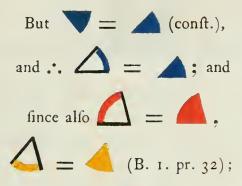
Therefore, the two triangles having a common base—, and their sides equal, have also equal angles opposite to equal sides, i. e.



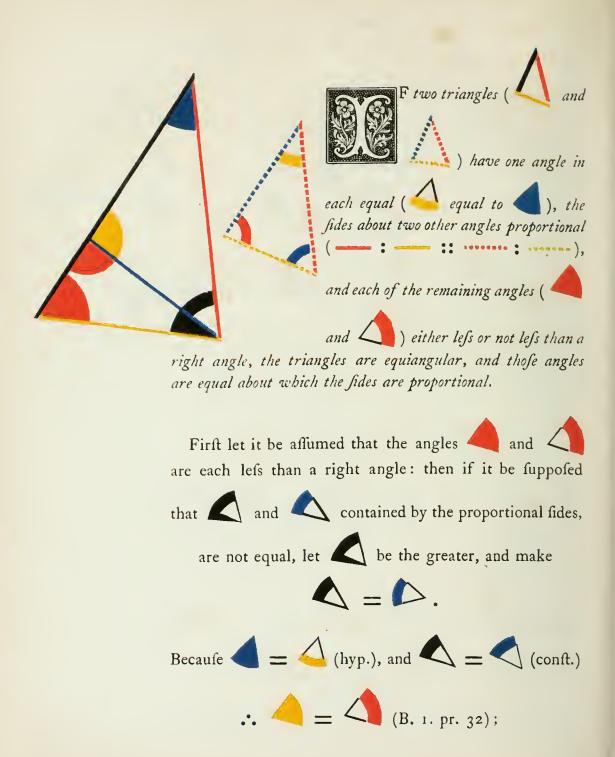
and therefore the triangles are equiangular, and it is evident that the homologous fides fubtend the equal angles.







and ... and are equiangular, with their equal angles opposite to homologous sides.



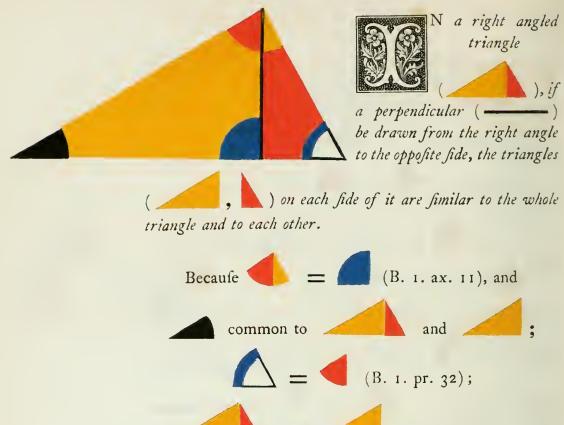
But is less than a right angle (hyp.)

is less than a right angle; and in must be greater than a right angle (B. 1. pr. 13), but it has been proved and therefore less than a right angle, which is absurd.

... they are equal, and fince = \triangle (hyp.)

.. = (B. 1. pr. 32), and therefore the triangles are equiangular.

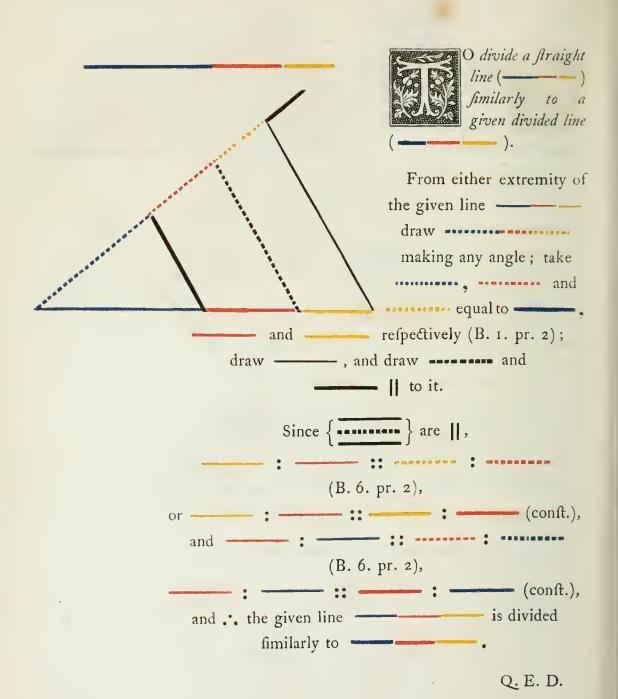
But if and be affumed to be each not less than a right angle, it may be proved as before, that the triangles are equiangular, and have the sides about the equal angles proportional. (B. 6. pr. 4).

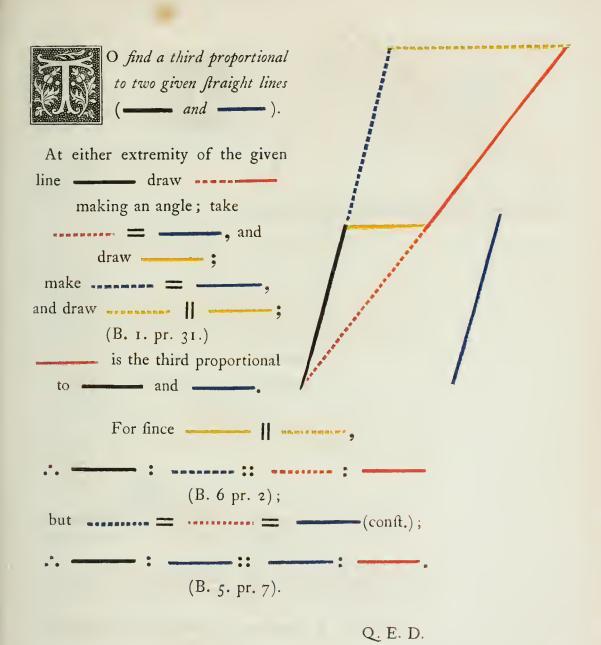


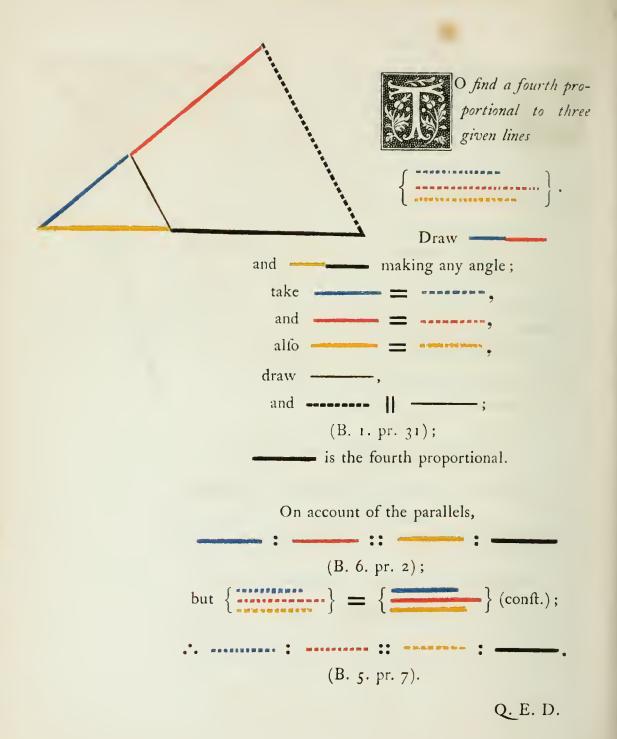
and are equiangular; and confequently have their fides about the equal angles proportional (B. 6. pr. 4), and are therefore fimilar (B. 6. def. 1).

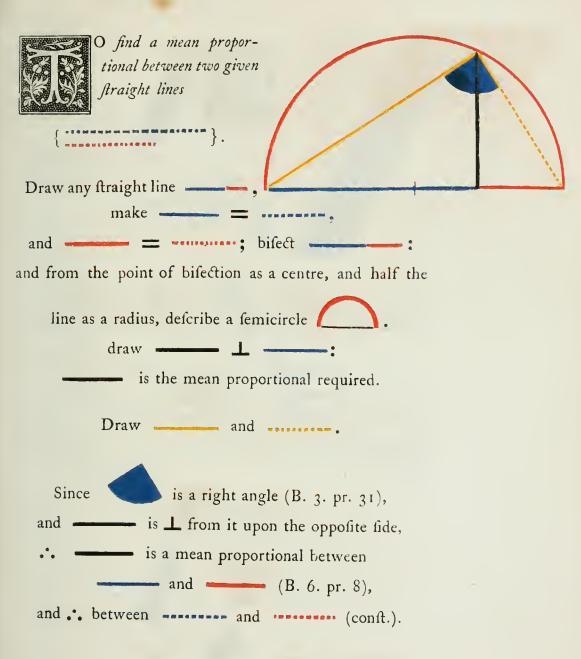
In like manner it may be proved that is similar to to has been shewn to be similar to fimilar to the whole and to each other.

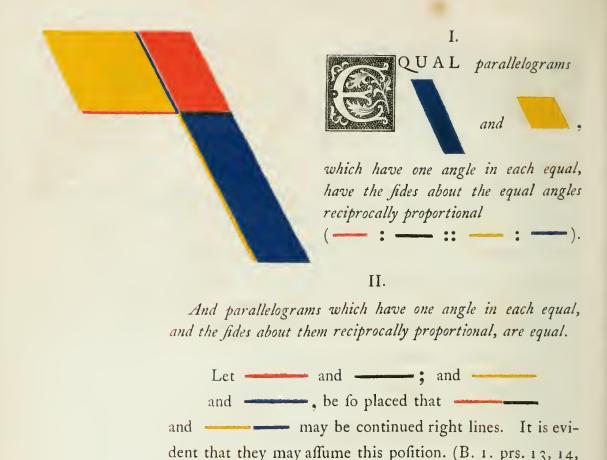
ROM a given straight line (to cut off any required part. From either extremity of the given line draw making any angle with and produce till the whole produced line contains as often as contains the required part. Draw , and draw is the required part of for fince for fince	The state of the s
(B. 6. pr. 2), and by composition (B. 5. pr. 18); but contains as often as contains the required part (const.);	
is the required part.	

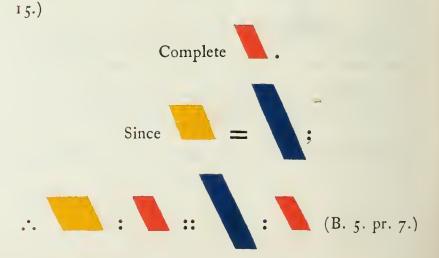












The same construction remaining:

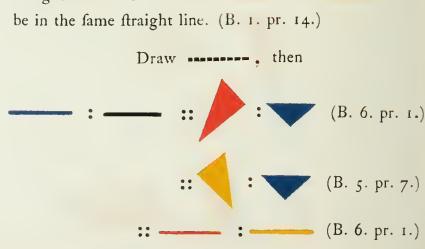


II.

And two triangles which have an angle of the one equal to an angle of the other, and the sides about the equal angles reciprocally proportional, are equal.

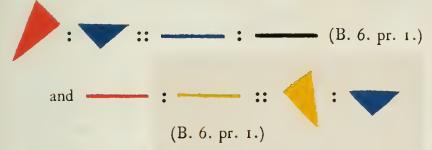
I.

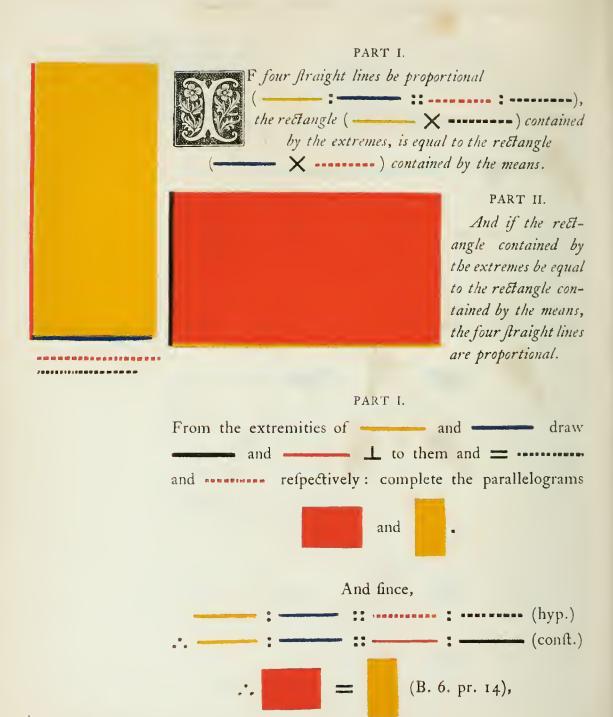
Let the triangles be so placed that the equal angles and may be vertically opposite, that is to say, so that may be in the same straight line. Whence also must be in the same straight line. (B. 1. pr. 14.)



II.

Let the same construction remain, and

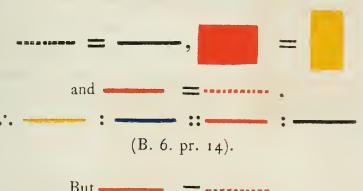




that is, the rectangle contained by the extremes, equal to the rectangle contained by the means.

PART II.

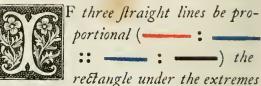
Let the same construction remain; because



and _____ (conft.)

(B. 5. pr. 7).

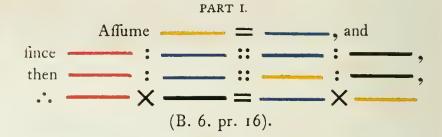
PART I



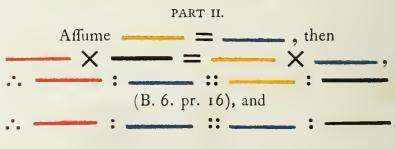
is equal to the square of the mean.

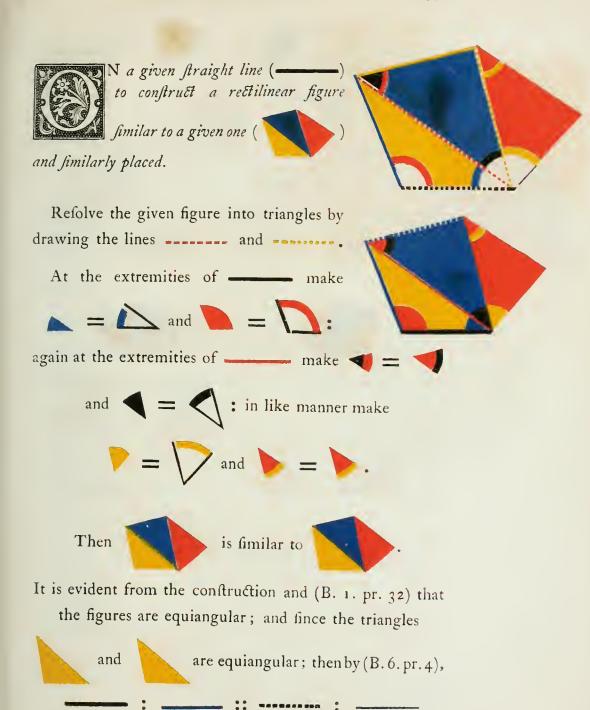
PART II.

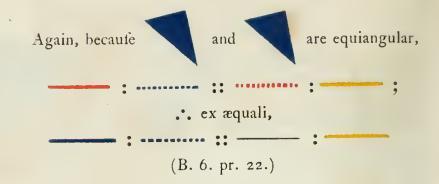
And if the rectangle under the extremes be equal to the square of the mean, the three straight lines are proportional.



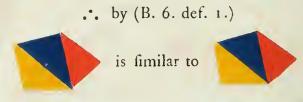
or = ____²; therefore, if the three straight lines are proportional, the rectangle contained by the extremes is equal to the square of the mean.







In like manner it may be shown that the remaining sides of the two figures are proportional.

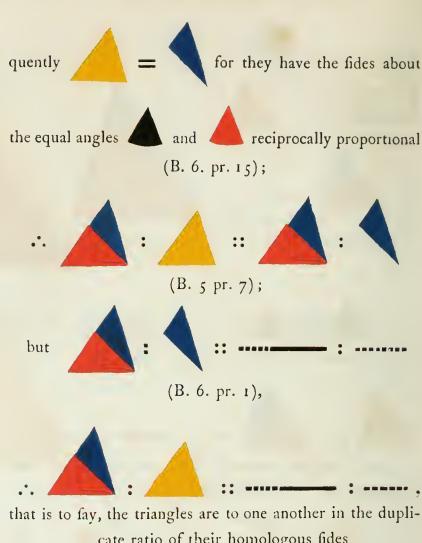


and fimilarly fituated; and on the given line ------



be equal angles, and and _____ homologous sides of the similar triangles and on ----- the greater of these lines take ----- a third proportional, so that draw draw (B. 6. pr. 4); (B. 5. pr. 16, alt.), : (const.), confe-

ΙI



that is to fay, the triangles are to one another in the duplicate ratio of their homologous fides

and (B. 5. def. 11).

IMILAR polygons may be divided into the same number of

fimilar triangles, each fimilar pair of which are proportional to the polygons; and the polygons are to each other in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides.

Draw . and and and -----, refolving the polygons into triangles.

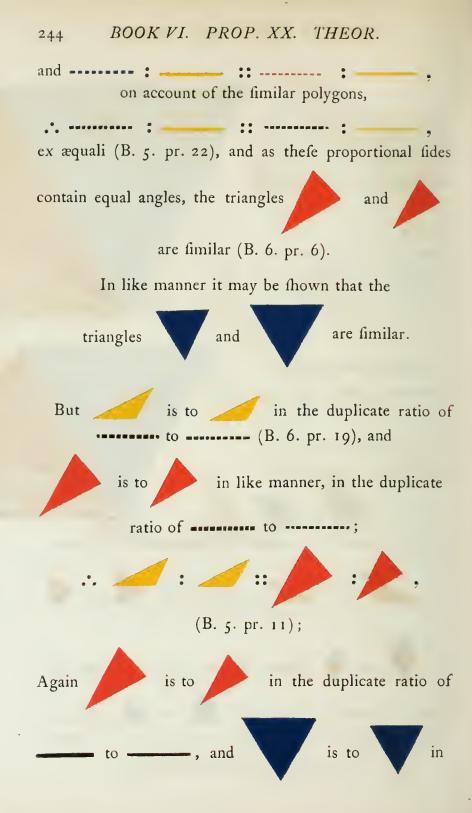
are fimilar,

Then because the polygons

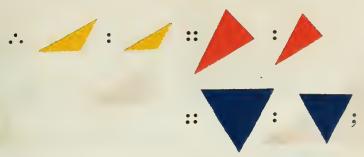
and are fimilar, and (B. 6. pr. 6);

but = because they are angles of similar poly-

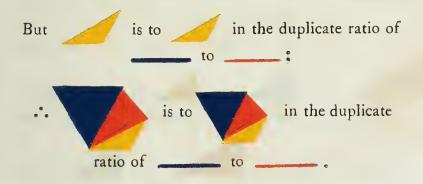
gons; therefore the remainders and are equal; hence on account of the fimilar triangles,

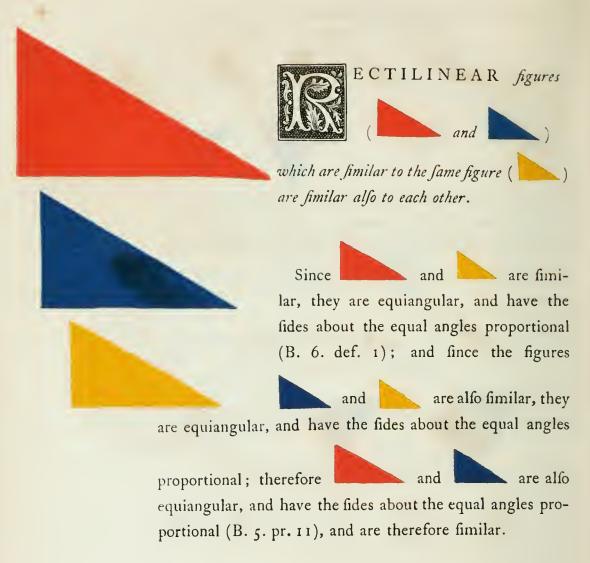






and as one of the antecedents is to one of the consequents, so is the sum of all the antecedents to the sum of all the consequents; that is to say, the similar triangles have to one another the same ratio as the polygons (B. 5. pr. 12).





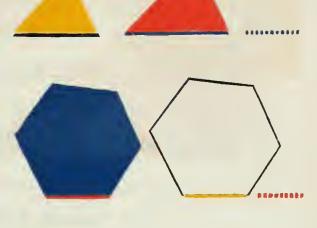
PART I.



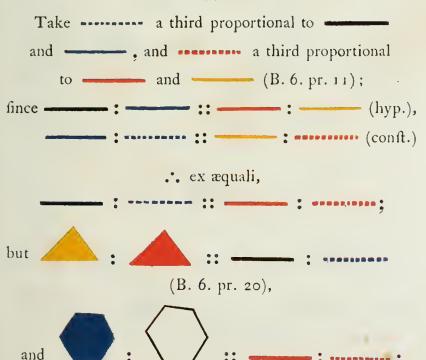
similarly described on them are also proportional.

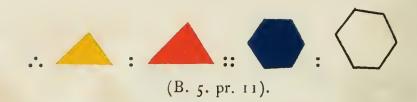
PART II.

And if four similar rectilinear figures, similarly described on four straight lines, be proportional, the straight lines are also proportional.



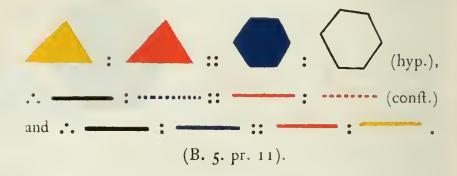
PART I.





PART II.

Let the same construction remain:



QUIANGULAR parallel-

ograms (

in a ratio compounded of the ratios of their fides.

Let two of the fides _____ and ____ about the equal angles be placed fo that they may form one straight line.



Since
$$+$$
 $=$ $=$ $(hyp.),$

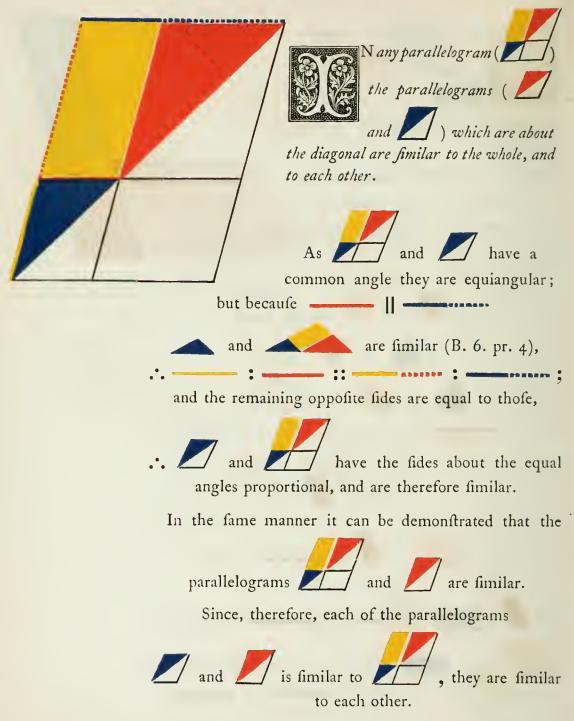
+ =

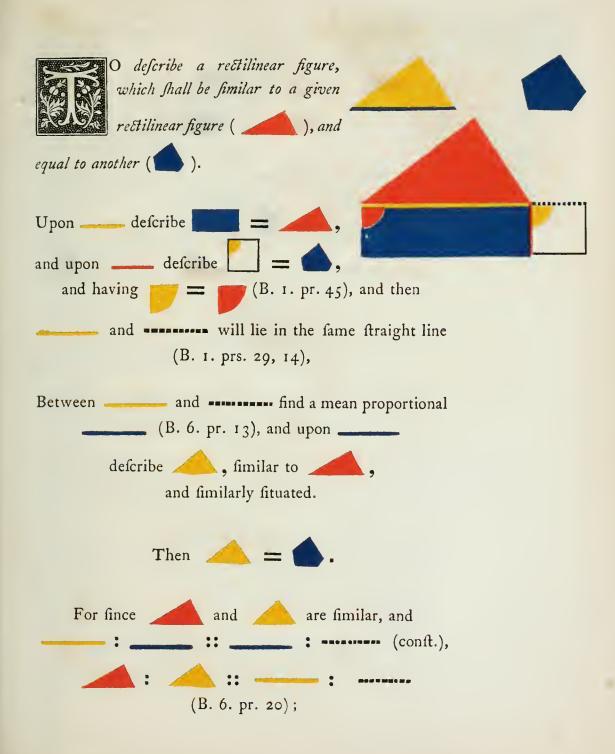
and ... and form one straight line
(B. 1. pr. 14);

complete .

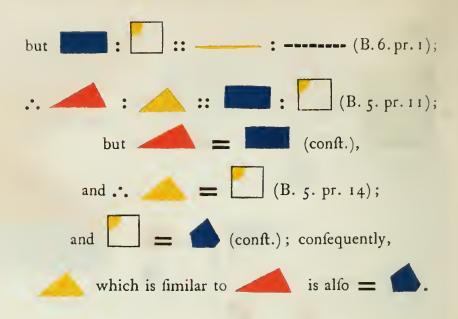
has to a ratio compounded of the ratios of to and of to

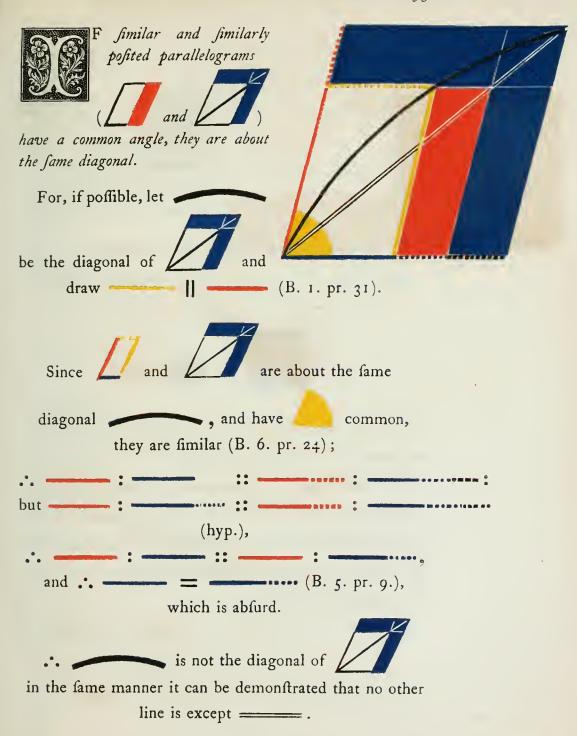
КК

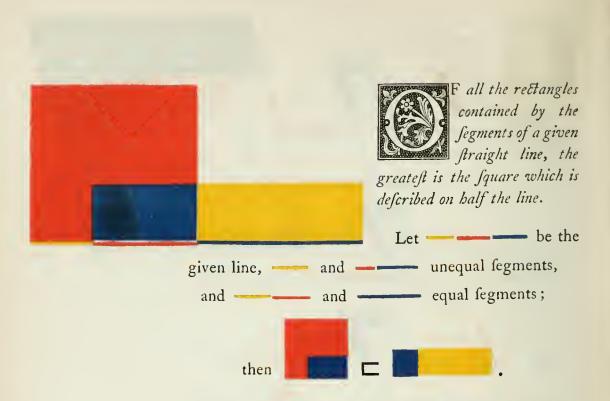




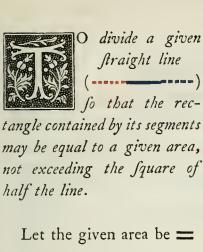
BOOK VI. PROP. XXV. PROB.

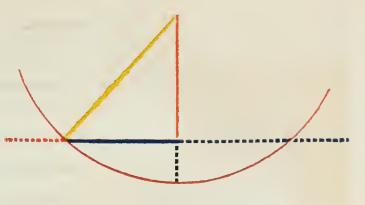






For it has been demonstrated already (B. 2. pr. 5), that the square of half the line is equal to the rectangle contained by any unequal segments together with the square of the part intermediate between the middle point and the point of unequal section. The square described on half the line exceeds therefore the rectangle contained by any unequal segments of the line.

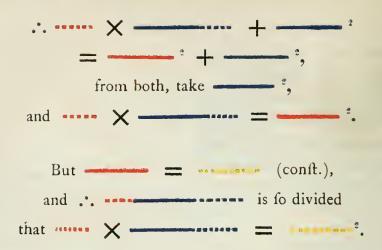




Let the given area be = -----².

Draw _____ make _____ or with _____ as radius describe a circle cutting the given line; draw

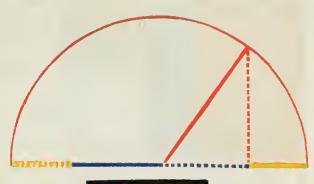
Then
$$\times$$
 $+$ 2 = $^{\circ}$ (B. 2. pr. 5.) = $^{\circ}$.

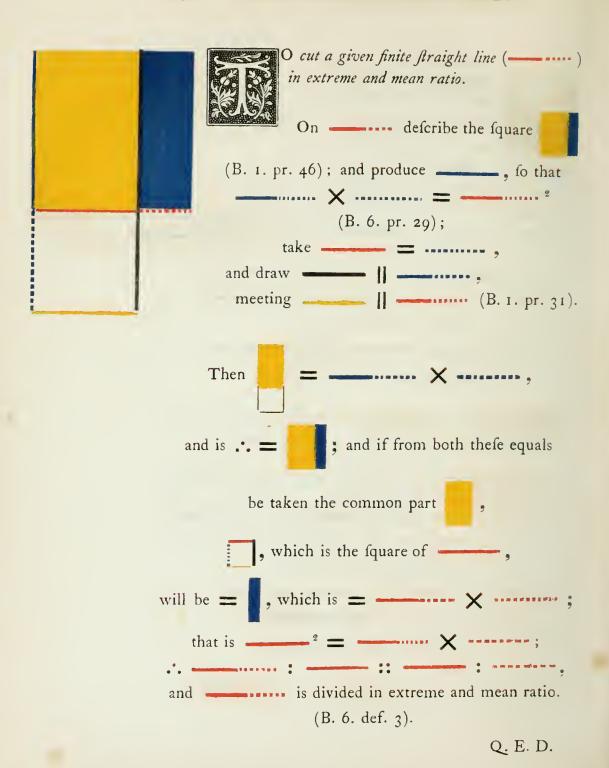




O produce a given straight line (-------), fo that the rectangle contained by the segments

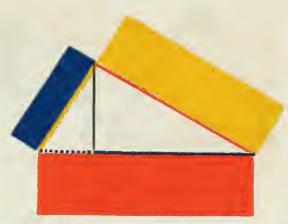
between the extremities of the given line and the point to which it is produced, may be equal to a given area, i. e. equal to the square on _____.



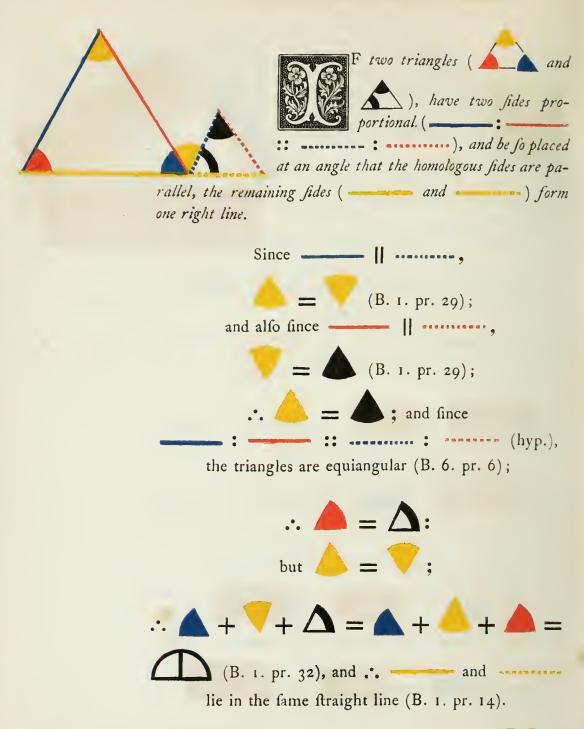




F any fimilar rectilinear figures be fimilarly defcribed on the fides of a right an-



```
From the right angle draw perpendicular
then
                   (B. 6. pr. 8).
                   (B. 6. pr. 20).
but
                  (B. 6. pr. 20).
     Hence
  and ...
```





N equal circles (, (

, (), angles,

whether at the centre or circumference, are in the same ratio to one another as the arcs

on which they stand (: : = : • : • :);

so also are sectors.



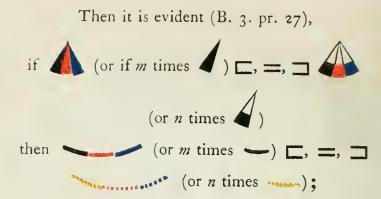
Take in the circumference of any number of arcs, ..., &c. each = ..., and also in the circumference of take any number of arcs ..., &c. each = ..., draw the radii to the extremities of the equal arcs.

in case and a second

Then fince the arcs —, —, &c. are all equal, the angles /, , &c. are also equal (B. 3. pr. 27);

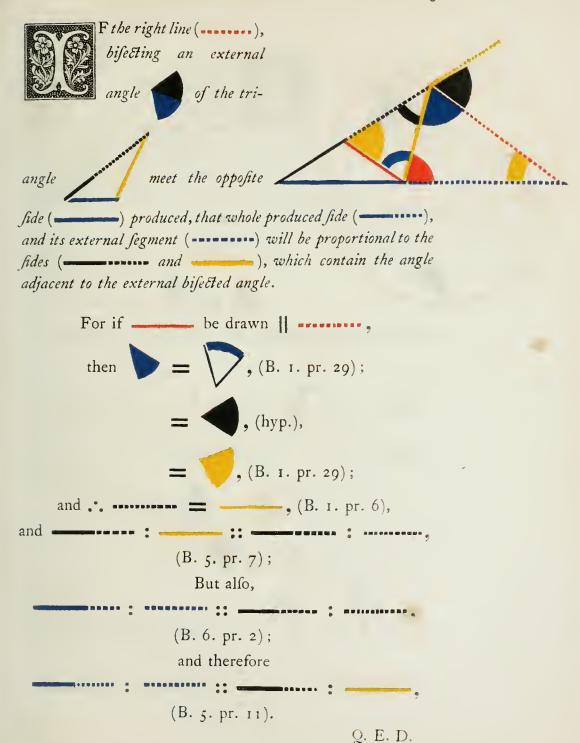
is of —; and in the same manner

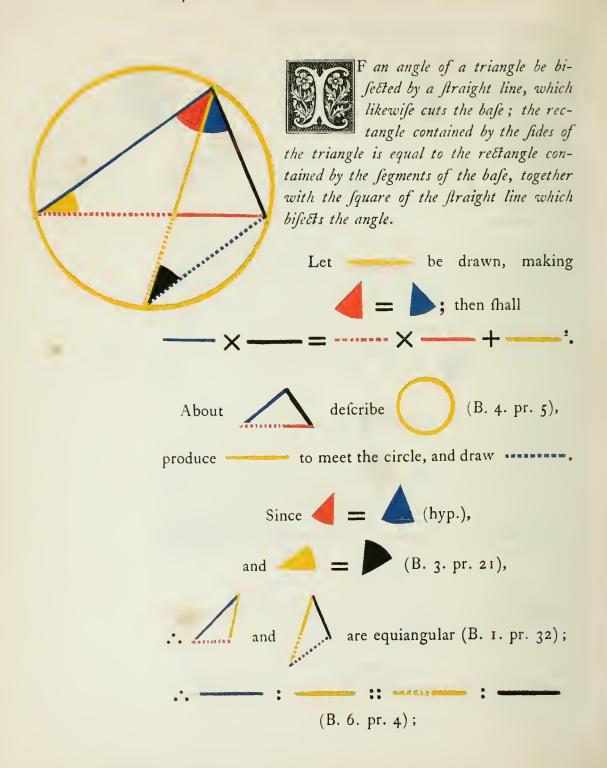
is the same multiple of , which the arc is of the arc.

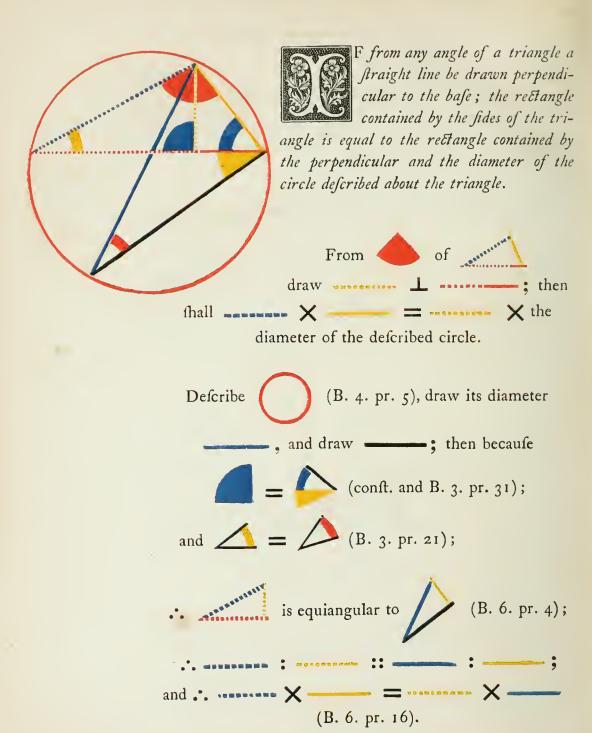


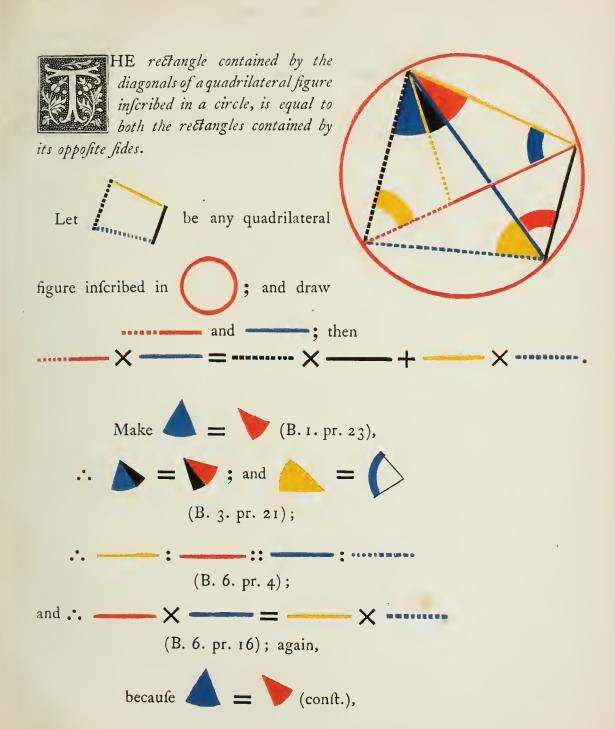
... (B. 5. def. 5), or the angles at the centre are as the arcs on which they stand; but the angles at the circumference being halves of the angles at the centre (B. 3. pr. 20) are in the same ratio (B. 5. pr. 15), and therefore are as the arcs on which they stand.

It is evident, that sectors in equal circles, and on equal arcs are equal (B. 1. pr. 4; B. 3. prs. 24, 27, and def. 9). Hence, if the sectors be substituted for the angles in the above demonstration, the second part of the proposition will be established, that is, in equal circles the sectors have the same ratio to one another as the arcs on which they stand.









THE END.







